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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 23, 1905.

The Week.

The President spoke smooth things in this city on Friday night about our now ranking as "one of the big naval powers of the earth," but it was left for Admiral Coghlan to state the rough truth. He explained, as he has done before, from the strictly naval standpoint, that our fleet is not what it is popularly supposed to be; that eleven of our "first-class battleships" are far from being first-class; and that we are, or soon shall be, 50,000 short of sailors to man the ships we have. The Admiral, as in professional duty bound, said that we must keep on building warships "rapidly," and "get more men." That is the old naval game, as worked so successfully in this country, year after year. First inform Congress that added men-of-war are an absolute necessity, and then turn around and ask, with fine indignation, if it is going to be so foolish as to spend millions on ships and then refuse to vote the millions more necessary to man them? President Roosevelt's complacency over the state of our navy is not at all shared by the real experts. There is no end to their demands. And the pity of it is that Mr. Roosevelt's words lend themselves to the policy of extravagance, at the very moment when a truly far-sighted statesmanship would be preaching peace and economy as the urgent needs of this country.

It is disquieting to note the accumulation of evidence that the President is not as careful as he ought to be in appointing Federal judges. The Chicago scandal is only the latest instance of a laxness in this respect on Mr. Roosevelt's part. His course in allowing Senators to dictate judicial nominations is in unpleasant contrast with President Harrison's sturdy insistence upon the Presidential prerogative in that matter. By personal inquiry and acquaintance, and by consulting more with members of the bar than with politicians, Mr. Harrison succeeded in doing much to raise the standard of judicial appointment. President Roosevelt has, unhappily, fallen away from that example. He has too often himself treated judgeships, and allowed spoils-hunting Congressmen to treat them, simply as so many "places" to be divided up among friends and the faithful. In Chicago, the promotion of District Judge Kohlsaat to be a Circuit Judge has made a very bad impression. It was formally protested against in advance by leading lawyers, including Mr. Charles H. Aldrich, formerly Solicitor-General of the United States, and the grounds of objection which they urged were solid, and should have been conclusive. The original appointment of Judge Kohlsaat was an impropriety. As the Chicago *Law Register* says, it was simply "a personal favor and gift from one friend to another." This means that President McKinley, who was obtuse in such things, named Christian C. Kohlsaat a judge mainly because he was the brother of his friend and benefactor, H. H. Kohlsaat. But there were in addition serious charges against Judge Kohlsaat. He had appointed two of his private secretaries as receivers. He had appointed his brother-in-law appraiser of an estate. He had appointed his own son as his private secretary. All these acts were grossly improper; at least one of them is admitted by the Attorney-General to have been in violation of the law. Yet, strangely argues Mr. Moody in his report to the President, "to deny the promotion . . . would impair, if not destroy, his usefulness as a district judge." That is, having been proved unfaithful over a few things, make him ruler over many!

The President has ordered each of the Executive departments to consult in all building matters the special commission composed of artists and architects, and to choose no site or erect no building except with its sanction. The occasion of this decision was undoubtedly the proposal of the Secretary of Agriculture to place his building athwart the Mall. This action is sure to give prestige to the commission, and reinforces handsomely the campaign of æsthetic education which for some years has been quietly conducted at Washington. It still remains possible that Congress may prescribe sites at random and without regard to the general plan of the capital; but the President's order at least points out the desirable procedure, and puts those who would develop Washington on the easy lines of a mining camp very clearly in the position of sinning against light. Congress, however, is gradually coming to have a proper pride in the beautiful city under its charge, and doubtless it will soon be realized that to develop a national capital without expert advice would be as foolish as to man the National Observatory by casual protégés of the Senators and Representatives. For this change of temper much credit is due the President, who has upheld every effort toward putting the development of Washington in skilled hands.

Ten days after the inauguration of a Republican President, at least three Republican Presidential "booms" are clearly defined. Mr. Fairbanks admits that he is a candidate; Senator Foraker leaves it to his friends to do the admitting; Secretary Shaw "refuses to discuss the matter at all"—which is his coy way of consenting. This prompt entering of a field from which Mr. Roosevelt has withdrawn himself has its amusing aspects, but, politically, it is no joke. It portends manœuvring and realignments within the party which are sure to have a great effect upon public measures. In a considerable degree, it tends to diminish President Roosevelt's weight in party councils. It will be all very fine for him to desire to have this or that project made a party measure, but the partisans of the various active candidates will be apt to consult the wishes of the man who, they think, is going to be President, rather than of the one who is President, and who, under our party system, may come to be looked upon during the next four years merely as a "public functionary." In any case, the changing situation, both in the Republican party and in Congress, will furnish future Bryces with a great deal of interesting material bearing on American party politics.

As an avowed candidate for the Presidency, Vice-President Fairbanks spoke on international relations, at the Ohio Society dinner on Saturday night, and made the huge blunder of talking like a civilized man. He praised arbitration, and prated about a "just sense of decency and honor" as being "a more powerful influence in the preservation of the world's peace than any manifestation of physical force." As if to pile mistake upon mistake, he added that an international peace due to "moral forces" is much more desirable than one "predicated upon mere might." This will never do, Mr. Fairbanks. In all truly statesmanlike speeches, the word "mere" is applied to morality, or benevolence, or friendship. To say "mere might"—meaning the precious guns and the men behind them, and the shots that hit and never hit soft—is sheer political ineptitude. Does Vice-President Fairbanks think that nominations for the Presidency are made by college professors and clergymen and philanthropists?

Secretary Taft's latest definition of our Philippine policy has some charmingly innocent features. He makes it in order to allay "timidity about investments in the Philippines." We thus see that the security of foreign investors, not the consent of the people, is the true test. To encourage exploiters

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of the islands, Mr. Taft assures them that "indefinite retention" is what the Administration intends. But is any Administration certain of indefinite retention itself? May not a new one come in after four years to inaugurate an entirely different policy, which then, according to the Secretary's reasoning, would be the policy of the nation? He concedes that the "question of the future" is one "wholly of conjecture," yet he would erect his own conjecture into a fixed policy for at least a generation. Mr. Taft ought to take down the 'Sherman Letters' and read what Gen. Sherman said when told that it was his duty to let the Republicans nominate him for the Presidency, since it was a "call from the country." The General wrote crisply, "I am ready to answer a call from my country, but the Republican Convention is not this country." So the policy of "the Administration" is not necessarily the policy of this country.

If nothing else, Pennsylvania's representatives in Congress are hard to beat. This year they were after an appropriation for dredging a thirty-foot channel in the Delaware River, and another appropriation to pay for a survey on a thirty-five foot channel. The House made the first of these sums contingent on the expenditure of a certain amount by the local authorities, but Senator Penrose offered a gallant fight and secured the money unconditionally. Against the thirty-five-foot survey, however, the House stood firm; so the bill became law without it. But that a Pennsylvania politician would be discouraged by such a defeat as that was not to be expected. At 11:15 o'clock on the last night of the session, Mr. Penrose offered a harmless-looking little resolution, "directing" the Secretary of War to communicate to the Senate "at the earliest possible date" an estimate of the cost of deepening the river to thirty-five feet. This was passed without objection. Obviously, the Secretary of War cannot find out how much the new channel will cost without a survey, and, if he answers the Senate's question at all, he must accordingly make one. The Washington *Post* declares flatly that the Secretary will not be able to give an answer at all until a special appropriation is made, though the point is rather a nice one. At all events, it shows how quietly an important enactment may sometimes slip through if offered in a strange guise. William V. Allen of Nebraska once, when most of his colleagues were either absent or nodding, offered and had passed without a dissenting vote a set of resolutions committing the Senate to the most radical doctrines, which he recalled, after waking up the members and telling them what they had done.

It is not at all remarkable that the choice of a Republican Senator in Missouri on Saturday was attended by "riotous scenes." The Legislature could not, as in the case of an ordinary deadlock, adjourn to take up the fight at the next meeting where it was dropped. Both Democrats and Republicans knew that if a Republican Senator was not chosen before adjournment, Cockrell's reëlection would be made the issue in the next campaign, and the State would go Democratic. The agreement which was reached in the last fifteen minutes of the session, after sixty-six ineffectual ballots, was on a candidate who had several obvious qualifications for the office. He is a man of education, an old soldier, has had four years of Congressional service, a term as Mayor of Kansas City, and was once the candidate of his party for Governor. While no one ever supposed the long deadlock to be due to high or disinterested motives, it seems to have resulted in a decidedly better choice than either the Republican caucus or the Kerens bolters would have made. The chief regret will be that President Roosevelt's premature telegram congratulating the State on choosing a man of "the German stock which, in 1861, saved Missouri to the Union," is robbed of its significance. But the greeting may easily now be marked "misdirected," and sent on to Senator Warner.

The seating of Peabody as Governor in Colorado on the understanding that he would resign as soon as possible—as he did—had the one merit of admitting that neither side in this remarkable contest came into court with even approximately clean hands. The proceedings before the legislative committee amounted merely to the piling up of evidence regarding fraud, each side trying by a little to overbalance the other. The moral victory, if there can be said to be one, is with Adams, for, if the Republicans had believed that the evidence disposed of his apparent plurality of 9,874 beyond a reasonable doubt, there was no reason why they should not have seated Peabody unconditionally. A few Republican papers from the first opposed the plan for throwing out entire Democratic precincts until a Peabody plurality appeared. One of them, the Pueblo *Chieftain*, presented an analysis of the vote, showing that for Peabody to win, even by a single vote, he needed to have 87.75 per cent. of the vote for the highest Roosevelt elector, and that in only 11 of the 59 counties did he receive the requisite proportion. This paper further declared that any one familiar with the political geography of Colorado could see that Peabody was fairly defeated by looking at the returns of any group of counties in the State. The Supreme Court decided a fortnight ago that it was illegal to install the Lieutenant-Governor in place of Adams, but that result is now secured in a round-about way. As in the Goebel case in Kentucky, the Legislature seems to have the legal right to decide between the two aspirants, even if it goes contrary to the evidence in doing so.

The excommunication of ex-Senator Cannon for editorial utterances against the policy of the Church leaders, without opportunity to prove the truth of his assertions, and the filing of charges against an influential citizen for "rebellious" utterances relative to free speech and political independence, hardly confirm President Smith's assertion last year that the Mormons are "the freest people in the world." Nor does the attitude of the Canadian authorities bear out the "prophet, seer, and revelator's" statement regarding the prevalence of polygamy. Prosecutions in large numbers are being begun against polygamous Mormons, of whom, as the reports state, there are "thousands" in the Northwest provinces alone. But, according to the statement of President Smith last March, there were in 1902 only 847 polygamous families in his Church, and this number had since been decreased by deaths. Items of this sort are in some ways considerably more telling than the bulk of the testimony taken in the still unsettled Smoot case. Senator Dubois, speaking before the Mothers' Congress last week, urged the amendment of the Constitution so as "to place plural marriage and political control by the Church entirely out of the realm of possibility." Few things, however, are more unlikely at present than such an amendment.

Judge Hooker and his lawyers made a most unhappy impression on Thursday at the first hearing of his case by the Judiciary Committee of the New York Assembly. In his letter courting and even demanding investigation, he had assumed the rôle of an outraged judge, stung to the quick of honor by the charges against him, and anxious to have the whole truth brought to light. But now, when the actual inquiry begins, we see him falling back on one nice technicality after another, and trying to hamper the investigation by every *nisi prius* trick known to clever counsel. This procedure can only deepen suspicion. Judge Hooker must be obtuse indeed if he does not perceive that his only hope of moral rehabilitation (to say nothing of his judicial) is to fling wide the doors and justify himself, if he can, by letting all the facts be seen. To fence and dodge and delay and resort to legal subterfuges is the last course on earth for him to elect. He is not on trial for crime. The only question is whether the allegations against him, if not disproved, do not render him unfit to be on the bench. Hence the vehement insistence of his counsel

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upon the strict rules of evidence; and their attempts to narrow the investigation make it seem as if the free and full eliciting of the facts was the thing of which he has most reason to be afraid.

The settlement of the controversy in the Equitable Assurance Society has been hailed as a wise and generous compromise, the results of which will be lasting and salutary. In short, the vocabulary of courtesy and even of enthusiasm is exhausted in honor of President James W. Alexander, Vice-President James Hazen Hyde, and the committee which patched up the wretched truce between them. It is impossible, however, to see how, on any theory of sound finance or morals, Mr. Alexander could accept Mr. Hyde's plan of surrendering to the policyholders the right to elect seven directors each year until they have chosen twenty-eight of the fifty-two. The struggle has been as to whether the Alexander or the Hyde faction should control the Equitable, with its vast funds, upon which financiers of all grades have looked with eager eyes. Mr. Hyde, who inherited a majority of the stock, has the whip hand, but Mr. Alexander has publicly declared that the interests of the policyholders are not safe when entrusted to a man of Mr. Hyde's intelligence and character. Mr. Hyde's friends have retorted that Mr. Alexander has his own selfish aims in view in the effort to break the power of Mr. Hyde. Whatever Mr. Alexander's motive, the fact is indisputable that a company like the Equitable should be "mutualized," so that in an emergency, in default of honest and able management, the policyholders can rally and protect their rights.

The compromise adopted is not a redress of grievances. Mr. Hyde will still remain entrenched for three or four years; and at the end of that period, if he can win over but three of the directors elected by the policyholders, he will be exactly as well off as he is now. In fine, nothing short of a general and persistent revolt of the policyholders can overthrow him. Such unlimited power should not—for practical purposes—be irrevocably lodged in one man, were he the greatest of living financiers—to say nothing of a person who is chiefly noted for social exploits. If Mr. Alexander's charges against Mr. Hyde be well grounded, Mr. Hyde is unfit to fill any important office in the Equitable; and Mr. Alexander's present acquiescence is either an admission that he is ready to eat his words and hail Mr. Hyde as a man of judgment and experience, or it is a surrender and betrayal of those policyholders for whose welfare Mr. Alexander professed such solicitude. After all these accusations and recriminations, the friends of the Equitable cannot do less than insist on an honest and thoroughgoing mutualization.

The sudden panic of the Maine liquor dealers, with its picturesque incidents of departing steamers overloaded with bar fixtures and cases of whiskey, does not mean that the penalties of liquor-selling have been made any more drastic or the law any more inclusive. All that the Legislature has done is to make impossible, for the present at least, the "gentlemen's agreements" under which saloons have been kept open in most of the cities. Hitherto it was a common thing for a Democratic chief of police, say, to raid and close all saloons kept by Republicans, while a Republican sheriff revenged himself by descending on all the Democratic publicans. The condition of affairs thus created would be obviously intolerable, and some compromise would be reached. The new law enables a State commission, appointed by the Governor, to go over the heads of the local officers to suppress illicit liquor-selling. It thus destroys an exquisitely balanced system of practical local option. The enforcement of the Maine law has always been spasmodic, and it is fair to assume that some way will be found to mitigate the rigors of this new provision.

Venezuela is pretty obviously the sister republic next on the programme of making our neighbors "decent." With France said to be offering to join us in the disciplinary work, an effusive and glorious time is in prospect. It was, of course, a disgusting thing in Germany to send warships to coerce navyless Venezuela; but a new Franco-American alliance engaged in that grand enterprise would be a noble and inspiring spectacle. Precisely what is proposed, however, it is just as well to fix in mind, before we forget, in the excitement, the gist of the matter. In a word, the suggestion is that our squadron go and overrule the highest legal tribunals of Venezuela. It is not denied that the Asphalt Company (in whose behalf all these flourishes are made) violated the law; not denied that it was duly summoned to court and found guilty according to established legal forms—that competent judges passed upon the matter. But, it is hotly said, the Venezuelan courts are corrupt; the judges decide under orders from President Castro; hence we will go and set aside their decision. This, it is admitted, is a novelty in international law; but Americans long since made up their minds to rival the Athenians in fondness for "some new thing."

Nobody can blame Mr. Balfour for applying the closure to debates on supply when he finds himself with the estimates to be voted and within two weeks of the close of the fiscal year. Criticism falls rather upon the bad management which, session by session, leaves important routine business to hasty and inconsiderate action in the last days. When the closure was similarly voted last fall, it naturally offended the Liberals, but it did even more to demoralize the majority. Debate became perfunctory, and attendance merely for the purpose of being counted on division became irksome to the Government members. Discreditably small majorities were soon the rule, and defeat was avoided on many occasions by time-wasting expedients that still further increased the general boredom. All these symptoms are likely to reappear in the remainder of the session, and there can hardly fail to be a notable increase of that staleness which is evidently more lethal to the Ministry than any direct attacks of the Opposition.

The indifference with which the world has received the news of the completion of the Simplon tunnel, as compared with the excitement over the finishing of the Hoosac tunnel and the piercing of the St. Gotthard, is an excellent proof of the vast progress made by engineering science. The Simplon is by nearly three miles the longest tunnel in the world, and its construction, even in the face of extraordinary difficulties, took but six and one-half years. Yet it is accepted in Europe much as was in this city the opening of the second bridge to Brooklyn. The first was something to marvel at and boast of; the second, merely an incident in the growth of the metropolis. So, to the general public, the Simplon tunnel is scarce a nine days' wonder; but, to the engineer, it is a shining milestone on the road of his profession. Tunnelling under a great mountain is still hazardous, because of the difficulty in foretelling the geological conditions to be encountered. There is already in progress a lively debate as to the part played by the geologists in the Simplon work. So far as the temperature was concerned, both scientists and engineers were quite misled.

The Russian retreat continues, but Kuropatkin is no longer at the head of it. The Mukden disaster was too overwhelming to leave anything of his prestige as commander-in-chief, whatever excuses might be made for his series of defeats. His disgrace, however, is not ignominious, and if he gives way to Gen. Linevitch, commanding the First Manchurian Army, he succeeds that officer and will serve his rival in a subordinate position. We know little more of the progress of the flight towards Harbin and Kirin than that no fresh panic has arisen. In Russia, public opinion is more openly for peace; but what *is* public opinion?

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THE SAN DOMINGO FIASCO.

From being the President who "does things," Mr. Roosevelt is rapidly becoming the President to whom things are done. Wound after wound has been inflicted upon him in the house of his friends; and the Senate's latest stroke cuts deepest of all. By hanging up his pet Dominican treaty, it has openly humiliated him and impaired his prestige, both at home and abroad. Those facile European commentators who have seen the United States, under the masterful lead of Theodore Roosevelt, taking charge of the finances of all the Americas, must be rubbing their eyes to-day and admitting that they have much to learn about American public policy. So has the President, and a succession of most wholesome lessons—not the last—has been set him.

His rebuff by the Senate has every mark of deliberate intent. His appeals were disregarded; his statements doubted; his policy sneered at; his predictions flouted. Seldom has a President with nearly a two-thirds majority in the Senate been so cruelly treated. On February 15 Mr. Roosevelt sent in his treaty and called attention to "the urgent need of prompt action on this matter." Again, on March 6, in a second special message, he said that "action on the treaty should be had at as early a moment as the Senate may find practicable." This was the President's finest "now or never" manner. But the Senate's response was a flat refusal to hurry, a formal notice to the President that the treaty would be defeated if now put to vote, and a vague promise to take the matter up again and dawdle over it further next October—or never. On Saturday the Senate adjourned without action.

Herein first of all was a rebuke to President Roosevelt's precipitate ways. He thinks to solve the most intricate questions at the drop of the handkerchief. To dictate a momentous departure in our foreign policy is as easy as to dictate three great speeches in three hours. "Details?" These are not for the President to bother about. The maxim of statecraft which says that the details are everything, was never meant for a man of his lightning-like methods. Vast general decisions in haste, and repentance concerning misapprehended facts at leisure, seem to be more to Mr. Roosevelt's mind. Just now he is said to be "deeply impressed" with the evidence laid before him respecting the muddle of fraudulent claims against San Domingo which he was jauntily proposing to liquidate out of his abundant wisdom. One would think that it might have occurred to him to glance over the precipice before leaping. It is better to be slow than to be sorry.

The President is himself to blame if the Senate's cold shoulder is taken to imply that his course in the whole affair has not been straightforward. The mystery of the original protocol has not been cleared up. The more it is explained, the more inexplicable it appears. One cannot get over the early inspired statements that the Administration's plan was to forget that there was such a thing as the Senate or a Constitution. The belated and fantastic reasons given for signing a protocol that was obviously a treaty, yet which just as obviously was never intended to be laid before the Senate, have convinced nobody. Even the loyal *Tribune* reports that, "despite the reiterated declarations," "prominent Republican Senators have asserted their conviction that the Dillingham-Sanchez 'memorandum of agreement' was primarily intended to be put into effect without the approval of the Senate." This is most damaging to the President. That he should first have been audacious and then tortuous, is a suspicion which it must be terribly galling to him to perceive is fixed in the public mind.

The result gives an emphatic negative to President Roosevelt's idea that he was ordained to be the Policeman of this hemisphere. He enunciated it most plainly in his letter read at the Cuban banquet last year. Therein he distinctly threatened "interference from the United States" in any neighboring republic that did not "know how to act with decency," or to "keep order and pay its obligations." San Domingo was the first field chosen for the application of this Roosevelt Doctrine (artfully placed in the shadow of the mighty name of Monroe), and we now see what a complete fiasco has followed. That entire novelty in international law, with its cavalier disregard of the sovereign rights of an independent nation, must hereafter be regarded as a Presidential whimsey, not at all as a settled policy—or a policy which could do aught but unsettle everything. In a word, the first swing of the Big Stick has simply barked the shins of its rash wielder.

What the Senate, with the general acquiescence of the country, has given Mr. Roosevelt to understand is that his rash ventures in the rôle of self-appointed policeman are not wanted; that a popular majority of even 1,500,000 votes is not a charter for a President to do whatever comes into his head; that laws and precedents cannot be set aside in a day, nor the millennium be created out of an Executive happy thought; that not even the youngest President is necessarily infallible. If Mr. Roosevelt takes these hard truths to heart, as all his friends hope he will, he may not have so much delicious excitement, and his Administration may be less spectacular, but it should be far steadier, saner, and more fruitful.

For the moment, this most optimistic of Administrations has been soured into pessimism as respects San Domingo. It now officially announces that it fears the worst. Already it sees foreign navies swooping upon the defenceless isle, with no corollary of the Monroe Doctrine to protect it. What is most to be dreaded, it seems, is an "ebullition of feeling" in this country when the process of debt-collecting begins. But that largely depends upon who gives the signal for public feeling to become ebullient. There are, of course, some alert patriots who keep their feelings always on the simmer, ready to boil over at a moment's notice and on the slightest provocation. But most of the honest and dull folk among us do not know whether they ought to be internationally indignant or outraged until some one tells them. Here is where the function of the Administration comes in. By keeping its own emotions well under control, it can act as a kind of public generator of calmness. There will be no general ebullition of feeling if the authorities at Washington do not first ebulliate.

IN DARKEST NEW ENGLAND.

"Political Corruption in Connecticut" is the title of an article by the Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth in the last issue of the *Outlook*. "In one hill town," says Dr. Smyth, by way of illustration, "the amount of purchasable votes became so large that the town committees of both parties made a mutual bargain that year not to buy any votes." The moral condition of this community is evident from the fact that "the compact resulted in a popular outcry, and the keeper of the country store protested 'against any movement which cut down the revenues.'" This sample of New England intelligence and virtue can, as the *Evening Post*, the Springfield *Republican*, and more recently *McClure's Magazine* have shown, be exactly matched across the border in Rhode Island. Not by accident is it that public spirit has gone to seed, so to speak, in these adjoining commonwealths. In each of them similar causes have produced similar effects.

Both States suffer from antiquated Constitutions. In Rhode Island, under the Constitution of 1842, each town and city has one Senator. Three-quarters of the population, in eight large cities and towns, elect only eight of the thirty-eight members of the Upper House. About one-tenth of the population, in the small towns, elects twenty Senators, and thus controls all legislation. These towns, which hold the key to the treasury, have been flooded with money for a generation or two, and have become incredibly corrupt. Their representatives refuse to commit political suicide, and therefore block every movement for revision of the Constitution. In much the same way the rural towns of Connecticut have a great preponderance in the Legislature, have become a political pig-stye, and answer the de-

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mands for reform by nothing but a display of brute force.

This intolerable situation could not continue were not each State infested by corporations whose managers have the consciences of pirates. In Rhode Island the Aldrich-Perry-Brayton gang, with its extended investments in street railways, electric and gas-lighting plants, and other public utilities, finds its traffic in franchises and privileges relatively cheap and simple while it can make its bargains with the rotten boroughs. The looters of the public can send Nelson W. Aldrich to the United States Senate, where his commercial instincts are fully gratified; they can, unless a man of ex-Gov. Garvin's capacity oppose them, name all the State officers from Governor down; they can fill vacancies on the bench; they can manipulate municipal administrations; they muzzle the press; they do as they like with their own. But vulgar plunder is not their only resource. They make and unmake the careers of lawyers and other professional men; through their trust companies and banks they lay a heavy hand on merchant and manufacturer; by their generosity to churches, hospitals, and other philanthropic enterprises, they win, if not the approval, at least the kindly tolerance, of clergymen and educators, and establish strong and useful social connections.

Connecticut tells the same shameful story. The Consolidated Railroad, as Dr. Smyth remarks, adopts the plan of "opening the bag"; and the alliance between corporations and politics has many ramifications. As a fit colleague of Aldrich, Connecticut has just sent to the Federal Senate Morgan G. Bulkeley, an avowed corruptionist. Since he is president of the Ætna Life Insurance Company, his favor is courted by men of all ranks and occupations, from heads of railways to bartenders. The newspapers of Connecticut have, like those of Rhode Island, been chloroformed. "One paper," writes Dr. Smyth, "is editorially in favor of all the virtues in general, but rarely against any political corruptionist of its party in particular." Another "was independent once—long ago, in the Blaine campaign." And still a third, "formerly with independent proclivities, has become too commercialized to count." Thus the vicious circle is completed; thus Connecticut and Rhode Island pose as "Laocoön" brought up to date.

As a remedy for the demoralization Dr. Smyth proposes two things: outspoken protest and organized work. His exhortation should lead to a searching of hearts in every State of the Union. In New York and Massachusetts, however, a roused majority can at any election turn the rascals out, while the peculiar Constitutions of Rhode Island and Connecticut make such a happy deliverance impossible except by something resembling a miracle. The agitation may go on for years, but so long as an Aldrich or a Bulkeley thinks it worth while to debauch a majority of the country towns, the reformers are confronted by arguments which they cannot answer in kind. They are dumb and helpless before a farmer who prefers a ten-dollar bill to civic decency. Good men in Rhode Island assert that the only resource yet untried is to fight the devil with fire—to raise a huge fund, outbid Aldrich, Perry, and Brayton once and for all, and buy the voters over to a revision of the Constitution.

This plan for restoring democratic government is obviously a counsel of despair. The problem is to get at the conscience of the individual voter. If his soul is to remain forever wrapped up in a greenback, no appeal from earth or heaven can reach it. But the general forces of religion and education have not yet ceased to operate. The Episcopal clergymen of Rhode Island, under the leadership of Bishop McVickar, have boldly denounced political corruption as a matter of morals, and therefore within their own jurisdiction. Some of the professors at Brown are also active in the agitation. True, no one who is familiar with the Episcopal Church in Connecticut now looks to it for any display of courage. Dr. Newman Smyth is the only clergyman who has openly dared to speak out. But continued agitation by him may ultimately stir the consciences of other ministers of the gospel, and perhaps even of bishops. No man should be rash enough to assume from past silence that every pulpit in Connecticut is filled by a poltroon, and that a white tie is invariably a badge of cowardice. The State in which Yale, Wesleyan, and Trinity set the intellectual standards must contain many college graduates who can be neither bullied nor bought.

THE LOST HANDY MAN.

That the present excessive division of labor is gradually abolishing that peculiarly American character, the handy man, can be verified in the experience of every householder. Within the memory of most of us every community had its quota of Jacks-of-all-trades—and very useful fellow-citizens they were, clever with all manner of tools, and resourceful before novel and difficult jobs. The temper that went to make these excellent workmen is illustrated in the proverbial young man who didn't know whether or not he could play the piano, because he had never tried. To-day that young man would resentfully refer the inquirer to the Brotherhood of Instrumental Soloists. Unionism unquestionably has done more than any one thing to cramp the artisan within the narrow round of minute employment.

Only the other day the case was illustrated at Toronto in a protest of the painters, plumbers, and carpenters against the practice of having minor repairs to the buildings of the fire department done by the force. Firemen, it was maintained, should do nothing but put out fires. Very graciously the carpenters' union conceded the right to do such incidental hewing and hammering as may be necessary to save a burning building, but beyond that no concession was possible. For a fireman to lay a board or drive a spike in his own loft would be "unfair." To be sure, the pleaders of this strait doctrine got little comfort from the city authorities of Toronto, showing that unionism sometimes fares rather ill even when it deals with a government; witness the railway employees of Holland and Italy.

We laugh at the lawsuits between the painters and gilders of Venice, in the fifteenth century, over the respective functions of artist and framemaker, but we constantly suffer annoyances quite as grotesque. The carpenter who sets a rung in a chair or puts up a few bookshelves cannot apply the necessary stain; that is a varnisher's business. Nor can a plasterer who displaces a hearth tile reset it; that is a mason's or tilelayer's job. In short, the simplest chore about the average house may involve a conference almost as formidable as that of physicians in council, and sometimes almost as expensive. Meantime, this specialization, which theoretically ought to carry the highly divided handicrafts to the point of perfection, practically does nothing of the kind. It is harder than ever to get a workman who can saw to a line, unless it be some German lately arrived, or other untutored foreigner.

In a measure, the passing of the handy man is merely an indication that our youth as a nation is behind us. There comes a time when a mature organism hardens with some loss of flexibility; but it is an uncomfortable fact to face. Nobody enjoys the first time he sticks at a leap he has always made with ease. And chagrin in such a matter is particularly justified in a nation because versatility in its workmen is a recognized aid to national efficiency. Our histories celebrate with pride those volunteers of the civil war who turned their hand to everything, from cobbling a boot to reassembling the parts of a wrecked locomotive; and recently the British journals have plausibly ascribed the calamitous beginnings of the Boer war to the general unreadiness of the average British soldier. Evidently, Great Britain produces in small supply those handy men whom Mr. Kipling celebrates in "Soldier and sailor, too;" and in case this nation again entered upon a great conflict, there would be found in the ranks too few of the Jacks-of-all-trades who rebuilt the

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Southern bridges and railways in the '60s; too many

"Sons of the sheltered city—unmade, unhandled, unmeet."

Yet, waning as the honorable profession undoubtedly is, one cannot believe that it will be allowed to perish. The Jack-of-all-trades is by far too useful a person to follow the five-toed horse and the flying lizard. Something is to be hoped from the gradual infusion of common sense into unionism. In the long run, it will be seen that to leave the workman only one string to his bow is to place him equally under the tyranny of his employer and his walking delegate. And even if labor should be slow to perceive the advantage of versatility, the increasing demand for the handy man is likely to replenish the supply. Never was the need greater. Large office and business buildings, apartment houses, and spacious residences all require men who can promptly turn their hand to all sorts of repairs, and such men will receive pay as high as the union scale with far steadier employment. While the handy man is in abeyance, it is probable that he is fomenting a rather formidable competition from the downtrodden householder. Exhausted by the expense and delay of consulting several artisans about every small job, he replaces instead of repairing, whenever practicable, and for the irreducible minimum becomes, perforce, a handy man himself. We see already clergymen who not only preach the word, but, at a pinch, stop a leak, set a pane of glass, or erect a kitchen shelf; jurists who dabble in plain plastering; and physicians who set a washer as deftly as they straighten a fractured tibia. Yet most of these amateurs are handy men more or less under compulsion, and none would more heartily welcome the rehabilitation of a craft short-sightedly crippled by the mandarinism of the labor unions.

THE WHALE FISHERIES OF TO-DAY.

This is the season for the floating paragraph about a forthcoming great revival in the old-time whaling industry, and almost every year some facts can be pointed to in support of such prophecies. At the close of 1903, for instance, it was announced with entire accuracy that no vessels in the whole history of whaling had ever taken so many whales in one season as the four steamers then engaged on the Labrador and Newfoundland coasts. In connection with well-authenticated reports of sales of whalebone at prices beyond all precedent, a pretty general impression got about that great things were being accomplished.

The fallacy of such assumptions lies in the fact that there is not one whale fishery, but many; and some go up while others go down. The whales caught in such abundance off Newfoundland, for instance, were not of the kind which yielded the $7.50 whalebone. In the Arctic Ocean, this same season was the worst known in the fifty-five years since those waters were first entered by whaling ships. In 1904 the conditions were reversed: the Newfoundland fishery was in straits, while the vessels in the Arctic had a reasonably good year. It can hardly be said, as a general proposition, that whaling is either dying or reviving, but it has gone through a remarkable evolutionary process, some stages of which have been noted within a very few years.

There are few industries which have had to withstand more severe blows. In the great days of Nantucket and New Bedford the captains cruised primarily for oil. The introduction of mineral oils for illuminating purposes destroyed in a few years the most important demand for this commodity. For other purposes it has had also to meet the competition of a large variety of fish and other oils. This year's average price for sperm oil, as given by the *Whalemen's Shipping List*, is less than one-fourth what it was forty years ago, while that of whale oil is about a third of what it then was. As a result of these conditions, the pursuit of the sperm whale somewhat slackened, and the Fish Commission's experts believe that its numbers are now actually increasing. But the price of whalebone meanwhile continued to mount. Thus, though the bowhead and right-whales which yield the bone have steadily thinned in numbers, the price to be obtained from the products of one carcass is larger than ever. While the whalebone of a right-whale might be worth $1,200 or so in 1860, it is worth nearer $8,000 to-day. For all the decline, there are still great prizes for a successful cruise.

This last year the fleets of New Bedford, Provincetown, and San Francisco killed, between them, 52 bowheads and 15 right-whales, as against 21 bowheads and 5 right-whales in 1903. The vessels in the Atlantic averaged 700 barrels of sperm oil, as against 620 barrels last year. One bark, the first in many years to cruise in the Indian Ocean, secured a thousand barrels in six months. As an index of the status of the industry at these three ports, it may stated that the tonnage to-day—25 ships and barks, 1 brig, and 16 schooners—is about one twenty-fifth what is was in 1846, the highest year; the imports of whale oil are about one-eleventh what they were then, those of sperm oil one-seventh, and of bone one-twenty-eighth.

But within the past five years the law of diminishing returns has operated in the development of an entirely new branch of the industry. The rorquals or furrowed whales, which are comparatively abundant off Labrador and Newfoundland, were formerly despised by the whaling captains as they yield only short whalebone of inferior quality. But now, instead of trying out the oil on shipboard after the old fashion, and throwing away everything else, the Newfoundland whalemen tow each carcass ashore to factories, where it is utilized almost as completely as that of a steer at the stockyards. Not merely the oil, but quantities of valuable fertilizer are obtained, and in the last year or two a process has even been invented for using the choicer parts of the flesh for human consumption. Whale meat in this form does not pretend to be a rival of fresh meat, but it is hoped that a market can be found for it in some of the South American countries, where it competes with jerked beef.

The pioneer whale factories were immensely profitable, but last year the development seems to have been abnormal, In 1903, there were only four steamers employed in this fishery, and they made the unprecedented catch already referred to of 859 whales, or an average of 215 apiece. Last year, seven steamers were added to the fleet, and while they increased the catch to 1,270, the average was only 115 per vessel. This fact, combined with unfavorable market conditions, made the year such a bad one that, according to the *Fishing Gazette*, only three of the fourteen factories have paid dividends.

So long as whaling was carried on in remote seas, it affected other industries as little as any business possibly could, but its development on the coast has brought up some curious new questions. The fishermen believe and are vehement in asserting that the slaughter of the whales will result in destroying the supply of bait for the cod fisheries. The whales, they say, drive the schools of caplin and herring, which would otherwise be out of reach in the open sea, into waters where they can be caught. Scientists have given little credit to this theory; but in Norway the influence of the fishermen has been powerful enough to secure the prohibition of similar whale fisheries for a period of ten years. In Canada, Sir Robert Thoburn is one of the most recent converts to the view that whales are essential to the success of the cod fisheries. Thus the whale, remorselessly pursued for centuries, has at last lobbyists working in his behalf.

A CHAMBERLAIN OF NAPOLEON.—II.

PARIS, March 2, 1905.

The memoirs of Count de Rambuteau are very rich in personal details concerning the Emperor Napoleon. They must have been recorded at random, and make us enter into his daily life, as will appear from a few extracts:

"Napoleon," he says, "lived very retired. Except on Thursdays and Sundays, when there were reunions, he worked the whole day. At five o'clock he regularly took a drive in an open coach. From time to time he would scream, 'To the right, to the left,' and the postillions turned immediately, often in very impracticable roads. . . .

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It frequently happened that he worked ten, twelve, fifteen days in succession without interruption; he would then say to me, 'My legs are swollen; you see, I need exercise; write to Berthier.' He fatigued seven or eight horses, took a bath on his return, dined in it, went to bed, slept seven hours, and recovered strength for a week. . . . The Emperor breakfasted on a simple loo-table. They brought him habitually mutton, chicken, sometimes fish, a dish of vegetables, fruit and cheese—always Burgundy. . . . He spent only about 20,000 francs a year on his wardrobe, and he got angry when this figure was exceeded. He always wore silk stockings, even with his boots, which were on this account richly lined."

"It was impossible," continues Rambuteau, "to keep a great house with more order than it was kept by the Grand Marshal. Our valets received new candles only upon showing the ends of the old ones. No fire was lighted in the rooms before the 1st of November." These particulars are adduced merely in proof of Napoleon's strong sense of order. Rambuteau has passages which are of much greater importance. Young as he was, he was impressed by them and made notes of them. Here is a very striking passage describing a *sortie* which Napoleon made when Chateaubriand's speech was read before the Academic committee which always thus passes on the speech before it is delivered at the formal reception of a new member of the Academy. Chateaubriand alluded to the Revolutionary period, and spoke several times of liberty and of tyranny. Napoleon was advised of it by Daru, and in the evening he said to M. de Ségur, grand master of ceremonies and a member of the Academy:

"You men of letters and authors look everywhere for dramatic subjects; it is quite indifferent to you whether you disturb a country and revive discord if you procure yourselves success and fame. As for myself, I am charged with a heavy responsibility. I try to calm hatreds, to attract all the talents to the service of the country. I lead them between two walls of granite, offering them great rewards in front and punishment for those who run away; you think I am going to allow you to ruin my work, to foster divisions, to recommence civil wars, and all this for literary effect! You are mistaken. You speak of the death of Louis XVI. Who can be more moved by it than the Empress, whose aunt these people killed? And while, surmounting her very legitimate repugnance, I prevailed upon her to be silent on the subject when the first persons who were admitted to play with her were Fouché and Cambacérès—while I give such pledges towards the pacification of the country, you would resuscitate the past and place yourselves athwart my efforts. Monsieur de Ségur, you ought to have warned me. I must know everything. If this speech had been delivered, I should have manifested the greatest severity. Either it will be modified or M. de Chateaubriand will not be received."

Chateaubriand would not modify his speech, and had to wait for the fall of the Empire before he was formally received into the Academy.

Napoleon, when he became Emperor, when he divorced Josephine and took a wife from one of the old dynasties, when he surrounded himself with kings chosen in his own family, conceived the most gigantic plans that could have entered the mind of a successful general; but he had a very clear perception of the character and the dangers of his task. "'I have achieved,' he told us one evening, 'the greatest fortune that history can report. Well, in order to leave the throne to my children, it was necessary that I should be the master of all the capitals of Europe.'" He did not, however, add London and St. Petersburg to the list, and he destroyed himself in the struggle against England and Russia.

As soon as Rambuteau heard the news of Napoleon's return from the island of Elba, and of his landing on the French coast, from M. de Bouthillier, prefect of Var, a near relation of his sister, he wrote to the Abbé de Montesquiou: "There is not a moment to lose. You will not find in the whole French army a single soldier capable of firing on Napoleon; he knows it, and draws from this knowledge his hope and confidence. Don't send a regiment against him; it would be furnishing recruits to his cause." He advised sending only national guards, who, from fear of a new invasion, might oppose Napoleon's progress. Napoleon made his triumphal march through France; on his way he ordered General Bertrand to write to Rambuteau, who replied that he would be faithful to the established Government, as he had been to the Emperor's Government. He changed his mind when Louis XVIII. left France, and set out for Paris. He was summoned to the Élysée by the Emperor.

"'If you had joined me at Lyons,' were Napoleon's words, 'you would be Prefect of the Seine.' 'Sire,' said I, 'I was the last to leave you; and, your Majesty having yourself given me liberty, I was bound to do for the King what I had done for you. I know that your Majesty has justified me.' 'It is true: if I had had twenty-five prefects like you I would not have abdicated.' 'Well, Sire, your Majesty can dispose of my life; I am paid beforehand by this declaration.'"

The account of the intrigues which took place, almost under the eyes of the Emperor, is very interesting. Many were doubtful of the result of Napoleon's efforts against the coalition which was preparing its armies; a new invasion was imminent; Fouché was almost openly preparing his treason. One evening Caulaincourt said to Rambuteau: "'I know very well that he is betraying us, but we are not strong enough to turn him out.' 'Then, my dear duke,' said I, 'you may as well say that the Emperor, and we with him, are in a very bad way, and that France is in the hands of Providence.'"

Rambuteau consented to go to the south as prefect. He found the population extremely divided. At Montauban he received news of the battle of Waterloo and of the Emperor's abdication.

"I was," he writes, "profoundly afflicted, but not surprised. Persuaded that there was for France no solution but a return to the legitimate monarchy, more or less quickly accepted, on the best possible conditions, I had only to terminate my task without any other ambition than to retire afterwards with the esteem of all parties. . . . The seventeen days which followed were, I believe, among the most painful and the most honorable of my life. Placed between adversaries whom it was necessary to conciliate, moderating the impatient ardor of some, calming the irritation of others, who were all the more animated because they still had the armed force in their hands and disposed of 4,000 men, I went from one camp to the other to prevent a collision. I constantly heard threatening screams in the squares and in the streets. I answered the cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' by saying, 'There is no longer any Emperor; he has abdicated'; and the cry of 'Vive le Roi!' by saying, 'There is no King yet'; and I had but one word for those who asked me, 'Then, what ought we to cry?' I said, 'Cry, "Vive la France!" France is for all time.'"

This passage recalled to me a very striking scene in the trial of Marshal Bazaine at the Trianon. The Marshal, having to explain his attitude at Metz, his withdrawing the troops behind the walls of the town after the bloody battle of Saint Privat, his negotiations with the Germans, excused himself by saying that he had heard the news of the September revolution in Paris; he had been told that there was no legal government left in France, that everything was in a state of disorder and anarchy. "In fact," he said, at the end, "il n'y avait plus rien"—when suddenly the voice of the Duke d'Aumale was heard, saying simply, "Il y avait la France!" These words expressed the feelings which moved Rambuteau, at a moment when France, after Waterloo, was placed, as it were, between the government of the eve and the government of to-morrow.

During the second Restoration, Rambuteau remained unoccupied and in private life for twelve years. He was elected Deputy in 1827, and took his seat in the ranks of the Liberals, with Royer-Collard and General Foy. His detailed account of the efforts of the Liberal nucleus of the Chamber is not without interest. When the Revolution of 1830 took place, Rambuteau found himself among the defenders of the Constitution and the supporters of the new Constitutional monarchy. He gives a very graphic account of his interview with the Duke d'Orléans at the Palais-Royal, offering him his services. "Sir," said he to him, "you may be sure that if there was any hope for the son of the Emperor, I would not be here; but I have learned in the school of his father that France takes precedence over everything. You alone can save the monarchy and prevent the worst evils, the Republic and civil war." The Duke said: "But I cannot accept the crown as long as the King is in France." And the Duchess, who was present and who had so far been silent, said: "No, M. de Rambuteau, it is impossible." "Her emotion and her tears moved me much. 'Madame,' said I, 'revolutions do not go backwards, they do not wait. You will be Queen before Sunday, or never. To return to the shades of Neuilly is no longer possible; you must choose between the throne or exile for yourself and your eight children.' She sighed, without answering."

This very interesting volume ends with a minute account of fifteen years' administration of the prefecture of the Seine. M. Rambuteau was a model prefect, and his name is still popular in the capital of France; he remained prefect till the Revolution of 1848, of which he gives a most painful account—a revolution which had for its consequences the restoration of the Empire, in the person of Napoleon III., and, after some years of deceptive military greatness, the terrible calamities of the years 1870-1871.

Correspondence.

A FAULTY ASCRIPTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In volume ii. of James Grant Wilson's 'Memorial History of the City of New York,' there is, between pages 484 and 485, a facsimile of a recruiting poster. This is called a recruiting poster of the Revolu-

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tion, and as such has been widely copied into other books. Woodrow Wilson, in volume ii. of his 'History of the American People,' gives it to illustrate the text for the year 1777.

I find in Heitman's 'Historical Register of Officers of the Continental Army' that Lieutenant-Colonel Aaron Ogden and Major Shute, the two officers of the "11th Regiment of Infantry" referred to in the poster, were appointed January 8, 1799. This poster, therefore, refers to the year 1799, when the United States had trouble with France, and not to the Revolutionary war. CHARLES K. BOLTON.

LIBRARY OF THE BOSTON ATHENÆUM,
BOSTON, MASS., March 16, 1905.

THE SORROWS OF PHILOSOPHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that the subject of healing diseases by mental suggestion is being so much discussed, readers may be interested in a fragment of parallelism connected with the early history of the subject.

James Hinton's philosophy of the Art of Thinking was analogous to the special kind of mathematical philosophy of which a writer in the *Nation* (January 5 of this year) says that "English mathematicians generally" have shown "a marked aversion" to it, and that Babbage, Herschel, and Boole were "much addicted" to it. In consists, as the writer says, in treating mental "operations as if they were things." In the "fifties" of the last century, Hinton carried on a series of experiments suggested by Hahnemann, with a view to testing the truth of the homœopathic system of medicine. Results followed as predicted by Hahnemann. It occurred to Hinton to repeat the same series of experiments with plain sugar-of-milk; fixing his mind, when administering the pillules, on the symptoms which, according to Hahnemann, should have followed from the administration of a special drug. The new set of experiments proved as successful as the old. Hinton came to the conclusion that the results were due to the imagination of the patient, acted upon by silent suggestion from the doctor. The story, so far, is told in his biography. The sequel, I believe, has never, till now, been alluded to in print.

If we examine the literature of Christian Science, or any other variety of "mental healing," we find the authors, for the most part, expending their energy on proving the one point, that disease is the product of false thinking, and can be cured by true thinking. They hardly touch on the inquiry, What is the normal order of the process of thinking? It is here that Hinton showed his peculiar genius for treating mental operations "as if they were things." Having come to the conclusion that the action of the doctor's mind on the patient's could affect the health and sensations of the latter as a drug does, he proceeded to deal with the newly discovered remedy, in all simplicity and good faith, on the same principles as an honorable physician deals with a new drug. A physician does not bind himself down beforehand to use one set of remedies exclusively and abjure others; he deals with each case as it arises, according to the best of his present judgment enlightened by past experience. James Hinton would never have consented to commit himself to use, in all cases, imagination and suggestion rather than iodine or sulphur.

He laid great stress on the principle that all remedial agents have reactions as well as direct actions. When a new drug is found capable of allaying unpleasant symptoms, the good physician does not therefore immediately feel himself justified in using it freely to get rid of those symptoms; he uses it with great reserve, in cases of illness, until every effort has been made to find out as much as possible about its nature and properties, and about its effects *and after-effects*, when taken by persons in ordinary health. Having discovered that the operation of framing mental postulates, hypotheses, opinions, imaginations, etc., can induce or can cure disease, Hinton devoted himself to the study of that operation as an entity in itself, on the same principles as he would have studied any anodyne or alterative drug.

The consequences much resembled those which followed my husband's mathematical analysis of the Laws of Thought. By the mere fact of analyzing the process of forming hypotheses, Hinton shed light on many departments of science of which he had only quite ordinary medical knowledge, such as morphology, embryology, physiology, and sociology; and even on mathematics, of which he knew hardly anything at all till he studied it as a branch of the Art of Thinking; much as George Boole, by his analysis of the Laws of Thought, shed light on obscure questions of mathematics, probabilities, electricity, chemistry, and economics. In each case, some section of the public welcomed enthusiastically such results of the investigation as proved directly useful or attractive (Hinton's little object-lessons on Morphology, published under the title, 'Life in Nature,' are exquisitely graceful and fascinating). But, in each case, the readers missed the true purpose of the writer, which was to present the process of thinking and show its normal course.

As it was my father, Thomas Everest, who had induced Hinton to try Hahnemann's experiments, I was naturally interested in just that part of Hinton's work which to most of his friends seemed uninteresting and unimportant. I sometimes felt that his most fervent disciples hated his philosophy "with the hate of hell," though they "loved passing well" the "beauty" of its results! His fate, in this respect, resembled that of my husband. Both were at times crushed by their failure as regards the main object of their life-work. In my husband's case, the disappointment showed itself in fits of remorse about accepting medals and degrees granted for the external results of his thinking, by authorities who, he said, would shun him if they realized what his books were really about. In Hinton's case, the grief was more profound and continuous. It overshadowed all his later years and hastened his end. It made him, in a certain sense, *ashamed* of the artistic beauty and intellectual charm of his work, and at times, even of its very moral excellence, because all these things attracted attention away from the study of the Art of Thinking itself, which he, as well as George Boole, believed to be the true key to the physical and moral regeneration of mankind. MARY EVEREST BOOLE.

LONDON, March 3, 1905

Notes.

Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco, announce 'Impressions of Ukio-Ye,' the school of Japanese print artists, by Dora Amsden, illustrated with reproductions of typical prints from color tint blocks.

Prof. Otto Heller's 'Studies in Modern German Literature,' to be published shortly by Ginn & Co., will give considerable space to the women writers of the past century.

John Lane's spring list includes an abridged translation of the 'Life of Peter Ilitch Tchaikovsky' (by his brother), by Rosa Newmarch, with numerous illustrations; a Life of Cervantes, by Albert F. Calvert; 'Memoirs of a Royal Chaplain [Edmund Pyle, D.D.], 1729-1763,' edited with notes by Albert Hartshorn; 'Napoleon: The First Phase [1769-1793],' by Oscar Browning; and 'The Duke of Reichstadt,' by Edward von Wertheimer.

McClure, Phillips & Co. are on the point of bringing out Prince Kropotkin's 'Russian Literature,' and 'The Yellow War,' by "O."

Forthcoming publications of the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde) are Canon Bigg's 'The Church's Task under the Roman Empire,' 'The Masai: Their Language and Folklore,' by A. C. Hollis, and 'Author and Printer,' "a guide for authors, editors, printers, correctors of the press, compositors, and typists," by F. Howard Collins. This last title moves us to mention a little brochure, No. 5 of the Publications of the Clark University Library at Worcester, Mass., on "Preparing Manuscript for the Press," whose instructions are clear, succinct, and sensible.

We omitted to mention, in our recent review of Dr. Osler's 'Aequanimitas,' the name of the American publishers, Messrs. P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Philadelphia.

We can also state that Mr. Baillie-Grohmann's edition of 'The Master of the Game,' recently reviewed in these columns, is now to be had of the American agents, Messrs. Charles Scribner's Sons.

From Messrs. Scribner we receive the fourteenth edition of Baedeker's 'London and its Environs,' fortified with four maps and twenty-four plans, its list of the principal streets, public buildings, etc. The total bulk has been but slightly increased. It is almost a pity that these successive editions could not graphically record the chief changes in the general aspect of the metropolis, which of late have been as imposing as they are extensive.

The latest issues in George Newnes's companionable Thin Paper Editions, with their flexible covers in orange and gold, and etched frontispieces and title-pages, are Chapman's translation of the Iliad and Odyssey (two volumes), Ben Jonson's Plays and Poems, Coleridge's Poems, and the Autobiography of Benvenuto Cellini (Scribners). The Coleridge has been edited for this series by Prof. William Knight. It embraces all the poetical and dramatic works published in Coleridge's lifetime, and Professor Knight arranges them in approximately chronological order, reducing the inconsistencies of spelling and punctuation, and adding a few notes to Coleridge's. Most welcome is the prefixed chronology of the poet's literary life. The 792 pages

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of this collection are still compact enough for the pocket or hand.

Three years ago we noticed with approval the second edition of Banister F. Fletcher's 'History of Architecture on the Comparative Method' (London: Batsford; New York: Scribner). The peculiar excellence and convenience of this work, whether for reference or as a text-book, are proved by its now appearing in a fifth edition, both enlarged (by more than 200 pages in the interval) and extensively revised and rewritten, as befits any self-respecting standard work. The author is prepared to furnish lantern slides of all the plates for lecture purposes, and large diagrams of the 168 plates of architecture and decoration.

Two years ago we had to speak of Mr. John Holland Rose's annotated edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution' in three volumes (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan). A popular impression has just been made in cheaper but still presentable attire, and with the retention of the many valuable contemporary illustrations. The portraits of Mirabeau, Louis XVI., and Robespierre constitute the frontispieces.

An interesting reprint is that of Samuel Rowland's 'The Bride,' edited by Mr. Alfred Claghorn Potter, and printed for C. E. Goodspeed at the Merrymount Press, Boston. Save for an entry in the Stationers' Register under date of 1617, this work has hitherto been unknown to bibliography. Last spring an unique copy was purchased from a German bookseller for the Library of Harvard University, and this is now reprinted in partial facsimile, with a brief introductory note. The poem turns out to be pretty much what might have been expected by a student of Rowland's work—a conversation between a bride and her attendant maidens concerning the respective advantages of the married and single estates. It is written in Rowland's habitual cleanly-turned six-line stanza, and is freighted with the bourgeois wisdom and sentiment which gave him so wide but so transient a vogue. There is nothing in the poem either to add to the poetic treasures of our literature or to furnish any new footnotes to literary history. It is, however, not insignificant as illustrating again the taste of the average reader in Elizabethan days. As a piece of book-making, this edition is particularly good. It is a typographic rather than photographic facsimile, but in arrangement, choice of type, and even in the selection of paper, the look of an old page has been very happily caught.

A protest is surely in place as to Prof. G. A. Barton's 'Year's Wandering in Bible Lands' (Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach). When an archæologist of repute undertakes such a book, the reader has a right to expect some material of archæological value, and other than personal or family interest. What, in fact, we have here is simply Prof. Barton's home letters, apparently without any editing or abbreviation whatever. Undoubtedly, their gentle, sunny spirit and mild didacticness gave them a charm for their first audience, but a charm too evanescent to endure print, and in perpetual danger of becoming ridiculous.

M. Hippolyte Dreyfus, with his Persian collaborator, Mirza Habib-Ullah Shirazi, has already done good work in expounding, to the West, Babism and Behaism, those two very queer developments of Islam and Persian mysticism which threaten to push even Christian Science hard. His last little brochure, 'Les Paroles Cachées' (Paris: Ernest Leroux), is a rendering into very charming French, but with some regrettable misprints, especially in stray Arabic phrases, of four of Beha-Ullah's flying leaflets—three tracts addressed to different classes of the unconverted, a Sufi Sheykh, a Christian priest, and a skeptical philosopher, and a fourth, a series of precepts and exhortations on spiritual things, not without likeness to the 'Imitatio' of Thomas à Kempis. The first three illustrate excellently the "all things to all men" which characterizes a certain group of Muslim sects; and the fourth raises anew the question, ever present to the student of the East, How can such beautiful thoughts and emotions coexist with the lack of veracity and morals which accompanies them?

That the mediæval Arabic translations of both the Old and New Testaments are of great value as clues to the more or less popular Arabic of the times when they were made, may be taken as certain. They, with the different recensions of the 'Arabian Nights' and such tales, are almost our only materials for the history of the development of spoken Arabic for several centuries. Further, such versions can mostly be dated, while the varying MSS. of the 'Nights,' almost without exception, are undated, and undatable with any precision. Every contribution, therefore, to our knowledge of these versions is to be welcomed. When it comes, however, as in the case of Dr. Paul Kahle's 'Arabische Bibelübersetzungen' (Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs), to incorporating in its scanty bulk several pages from the modern Smith-van Dyke translation and thirty pages of an elementary vocabulary, the welcome will be dubiously expressed. The scientific publication of mediæval popular texts and the providing of an elementary reading-book for tyros in Arabic have absolutely nothing in common. It is an attempt at two publics which will repel one and be very bad for the other. Dr. Kahle's editing seems careful, but his *Literaturübersicht* is irritatingly incomplete. The investigations in his subject of neither Guidi nor Burkitt appear to have come to his knowledge.

A few American libraries are going in thoroughly, if somewhat late in the day and therefore compelled to be content with gleanings, for the building up of their MS. collections. Notably, Mr. Robert Garrett enriched Princeton with a large Oriental collection. To it he has now made an addition of over four hundred volumes, and Dr. Littmann, the curator, has published a hand-list of 355 of these, or the Arabic portion. As a temporary clue, the list will be very useful; the only pity is that the collection itself is not more interesting.

The initial article in the *Library* for January is an account, by the associate editor, Mr. A. W. Pollard, of certain rarities among "Recent Purchases at the British Museum." These have been mostly books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, not so many from the fifteenth, but among them at least one of particular interest, namely, a hitherto unknown edition of Tindale's New Testament, a reissue of George Joye's surreptitious edition, with an interesting preface, "Unto the Reader," in which Joye seeks to justify his reprinting Tindale's translation. The present edition is earlier than Joye's "Apology," and casts an interesting light on that production.

Mr. L. Stanley Jast, who represented the Library Association of the United Kingdom at the St. Louis Conference of Librarians, gives in the February *Library Association Record* his Impressions of American Libraries. "The American library," he says, "is an inspiring example of what the public library is capable of being in the life of a town, when efficiently administered on the most free and democratic lines, and adequately supported by a community which thoroughly believes in library work and the library idea." What struck him particularly was the freedom with which readers are admitted to the shelves in many of the libraries which he visited; he puts it down as an instance of our desire for absolute freedom, and mentions as another instance Euclid Avenue in Cleveland, which "has no rails, nor hedges, nor partitions between the separate gardens or the road, so that the road seems to run through a park, with handsome villas dotting the greensward, a most effective *tout-ensemble*. It is perfectly obvious," Mr. Jast remarks, "that the library must lose books, and that people must trespass over the gardens, but it is all very democratic, and that is sufficient for the United States." He mentions, further, the ample resources of American libraries, which make it possible for them to provide many accommodations for which as yet the demand seems slight, *e. g.*, lecture-rooms. The staffs are larger than in English libraries, and more highly specialized, but he thinks there are too many women workers.

Mr. William Abbatt of this city has revived under a slightly different name the old *Magazine of American History*, which was founded in 1877 and ceased to appear in 1893, not long after the death of Mrs. Martha J. Lamb, who had been its editor for nearly ten years. The new publication, a monthly, bears the title of the *Magazine of History, with Notes and Queries*. A genealogical department is added.

The two leading obituaries, with portraits, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March, are of the late William H. Baldwin, jr., and George F. Hoar—promise and fruition. Of Senator Hoar not much that was new could be said; but the younger Puritan's simple record exhibits an extraordinary capacity for civic activity, rare independence, and that ardent interest in the spiritual elevation of the South which glows in the annals of Tuskegee and the General Education Board. The memorial fund now being raised in his name for the further support of the great work of Booker Washington deserved to be mentioned by his biographer if the exigencies of the press permitted. More exclusively Harvard topics are discussed under the captions "The Social Question" and "The Winter Quarter." The one article exposes the dissatisfaction with club and preparatory-school control of undergraduate affairs, leading to successful revolt at recent Freshman elections for class president, and to the *Crimson's* refusing to print the list of society elections except when made wholly on a basis of merit (*e. g.*, the Phi Beta Kappa). The other tells of 61 college rooms untenanted, partly because of location on the wrong side, socially speaking, of Massachusetts Avenue; and of the decrease in active membership of the Harvard Union.

Attention should be called to the article

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in the current issue of *Charities* by Mrs. Elsie Clews Parsons, on a rescue plan for those much-to-be-pitied young women who, after leaving college or school, find no means of carrying on such a life of happy activity as they have for years been accustomed to. The plan involves systematic training at the Teachers' College in scientific ways of bringing up children (both rich and poor), to be followed by the putting in practice of their knowledge in the management of children's hospitals, reformatories, and day nurseries, and in other as yet undeveloped means of ameliorating poverty through work with the children of the poor.

In the scientific *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 24, the German archæologist, R. Engelmann, of Rome, discusses at considerable length the new Italian law in reference to archæological researches and investigations in that country. He deplores it, not only because it practically excludes the foreign savant from engaging in such work, but to a great extent also hampers the Italian scholar. He discusses in particular the enactment with reference to the making of plaster of Paris casts and photographic reproductions, declaring that it will on the one hand ruin a flourishing business, and on the other make almost impossible the preparation and sending out even of photographs of archæological material. It virtually puts a stop to excavations, except in the case of native scholars. Engelmann further reports that the Government seems to be convinced that the statute is too stringent. The Italian savants themselves are calling for a modification of it. In No. 28 of the same journal is found an interesting correspondence between Professor Waldstein and Minister Orlando, with reference to the proposed excavation of Herculaneum under international auspices. This correspondence took place in April of last year, in connection with audiences given to Dr. Waldstein by the King and by Minister Orlando, and makes it quite evident that the Italian Government originally favored the project of the Cambridge professor. The new and stringent archæological code was published more than six months after the Waldstein episode. Was it a case of *post hoc, ergo propter hoc?*

Professor Doerpfeld, the distinguished head of the Athenian branch of the German Archæological Institute, has not been converted by the objections raised to his theory that the classical and modern Leucas was the Homeric Ithaca, but is more confident than ever that he is right. He has been accustomed in other matters to see former objectors range themselves later on his side, for no one else has brought forward so many new views with regard to Greek topography and architecture which at last have become generally accepted. Several wealthy Germans have supplied him with funds for the continuance of his excavations on Leucas (his Homeric Ithaca), and the German Emperor has detailed two Prussian officers for the survey of the island and the preparation of a better map than now exists. Dr. Doerpfeld probably expects to find no demonstrative evidence for the truth of his theory, such as would convince Von Wilamowitz of Berlin, the most pronounced critic of his view; but he hopes to find the remains of a great Mycenæan palace, less magnificent than those in Argolis, but of the same age. That the classical Ithaca fails to satisfy the requirements of the Homeric Ithaca is generally conceded by those who have visited it. In opposition to those who explain this lack of agreement by supposing the Homeric poet to have lived exclusively in Asia Minor and to have had no personal knowledge of Western Greece, Dr. Doerpfeld urges that, so far as the Homeric poems have been tested by the results of archæological excavations, the Homeric descriptions have been found to be based on fact to an extent hitherto supposed impossible. He believes in the essential original unity of the poems, and would assign the poet to an earlier date than scholars generally accept—to the twelfth century B. C., before the Dorian migration.

The establishment of a Danish experiment station in Greenland seems to be at last assured by a private gift of the required amount, $10,000, and it now only remains for the authorities to furnish the necessary funds for its support. As this annual expense is estimated at less than $3,000, there can be little doubt that the amount will be appropriated. The plan, which has received enthusiastic approval at home and abroad, was first proposed in the fall of 1903 by a young Danish scientist, Morten Porsild, who is willing to move to Greenland with his family to act as first director. The advantages of the station are twofold: first, as contributing to the world's knowledge of plant and animal life in the Arctic regions, and second, as developing the natural resources of the country by tree-culture, scientific breeding, etc., and thus improving the condition of the people.

A Joint Announcement of nineteen field courses in geology offered by eleven institutions in different parts of the country—from Harvard to Stanford—for the coming summer has lately been issued, and twenty-eight of the larger colleges and universities will, under certain conditions, give credit to such of their students as take any of these courses. The Intercollegiate Appalachian Course promises to be especially attractive, as it will be given in successive weeks, beginning July 3, by Profs. Clark of Johns Hopkins, Davis of Harvard, Hopkins of Syracuse, Cushing of Western Reserve, and Barrell of Yale, on the coastal plain of Maryland, the Susquehanna-Juniata district of Pennsylvania, the Syracuse district and the border of the Adirondacks in New York, and the hill country of crystalline rocks in western Connecticut. A circular giving details of the course can be had of Prof. W. B. Clark, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. The general Joint Announcement can be had of the professors of geology in Wisconsin, Stanford, Ohio, North Carolina, Minnesota, Kansas, Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Columbia, or Chicago University.

—We are glad to receive from Messrs. Longman a new edition of Sir George Trevelyan's 'American Revolution.' It appears now as in three volumes, instead of two parts, the second in two volumes. Volume i., the former part i., we are told, has been largely rearranged, carefully revised, and in part rewritten. We have not collated the two editions in detail, with a view to finding out exactly the limits of rearrangement and rewriting, but it is certain that, as far as revision goes, the author has left uncorrected several mistakes of which he had been duly apprised, in all three volumes. Volumes ii. and iii. (part ii.) are not said to have undergone revision, yet some of the errors were too bad, and too easily corrected, to stay as they were. Foremost is that amazing blunder of calling Camden Rockingham's Lord Chancellor (ii., 52). Sir George Trevelyan well knows who Lord Rockingham's Lord Chancellor was. Long since he described him and his treachery in a scathing manner ('Early Life of Fox,' p. 128). The Bishop of Derry was never *Lord* Frederick Hervey (iii., 325), and one would like to know when the Hon. Augustus Keppel received knighthood (iii., vii.). Batterymarch Street, a name known to Boston for two centuries, still appears as Battery "Marsh" (i., 57), apparently from dogged following of a misprint in the ancient map of Boston; a like cause is responsible for "McKenkey's" ferry (iii., 99) for Meconkey's, and perhaps for "Gowan's" Creek (ii., 281), instead of Gowanus Creek. Amherst is Sir Geoffrey (iii., vii.) and Sir Jeffrey (iii., 207). "The Chapel of their connexion" (i., 86), however familiar to English Nonconformists, is simply meaningless to an American; and the Old North "Chapel" (i., 331), instead of either Church or Meeting-house, is equally fantastic. If we are always to have "Bunker's" Hill, why say "Governor" Island (ii., 286)? The proof-reader must be held to account for "*rovus homo*" (i. 215), "caldrons" of coal (for chaldrons) (i., 343), and "Massachussetts" (ii., 307, note). It may be said that most of these slips are trifles. So they are in a first edition; but they are inexcusable in a second, purporting to have been revised.

—The second volume of Prof. Edward Arber's reprint of the "Term Catalogues" is now ready, and covers the period 1683-1696. He records the discovery by Mr. Falconer Madan of five hitherto unknown numbers of the abridged issue of the fourth series of these catalogues, but has been unable to discover any copy of No. 59 [58] of the same series. He hints that it may never have been issued. It is needless to emphasize the importance of this unselfish labor of Professor Arber. These catalogues offer the nearest possible approach to a bibliography of the Restoration and the Revolution of 1688. Due allowance must be made for the political troubles that interfered with the original compilation; the censorship of the press, too, prevented the recording of many important issues. Newton's 'Principia' does not appear, nor is there any trace of the lost first book of Defoe. But Milton appears as a lexicographer, and Mr. Arber believes that his three manuscript volumes which were incorporated in the Cambridge Latin and English Dictionary of 1693, may still be in existence. Books on America are to be found in the list. Jamaica was the cause of controversy; and Esquemeling's 'Bucaniers' twice appeared in 1684. Two years later was printed a translation from the Portuguese of 'A Relation of the Invasion and Conquest of Florida,' and in 1690 John Palmer's 'Impartial Account of the State of New England' was announced. Not a few sermons delivered in the colonies were reprinted in London. The great interest of the catalogues lies in the English books they announced, and their usefulness has been much increased by Professor Arber's indices supplying titles, names, and initials omit-

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ted by the original compilers. The printing leaves little to be desired, and Professor Arber inserts the following characteristic note announcing a change of printer: "The new Types are all of the same series; and are certainly among the most beautiful founts to be found anywhere in the world. The new Paper has been made under the advice, and subject to the constant tests, of most eminent London Paper Experts and Chemical Analysts; and will last till the Day of Doom. The new Ink will keep its intense blackness as long as the Paper will last." This reprint is a necessity for every library of any size.

—Coöperative cataloguing is coming to the front in England, as well as in Germany. Some time ago Mr. L. Stanley Jast outlined in an article contributed to the *Library* a plan for a Cataloguing Bureau for Public Libraries, and the January number contains a symposium of opinions on the subject by several librarians. All the writers are favorably disposed towards the scheme, though not many have any new suggestions to advance; to one writer, however, it has occurred "that the British Museum authorities might possibly be induced to issue catalogue slips by arrangement with libraries willing to subscribe towards the cost of such an undertaking"—a timely suggestion. It remains to be seen whether or not the Museum authorities are as ready to take the lead in this matter as the Librarian of Congress was when the project for a central cataloguing bureau was discussed by the American Library Association. Thanks to his leadership, cooperative cataloguing has in this country passed the experimental stage. The success of the undertaking here makes it reasonable to hope for success of similar plans in England and Germany, and we might yet behold international coöperation. Mr. Jast's proposition in St. Louis, that a common cataloguing code be prepared for English and American libraries, will now have to be carefully considered by the Advisory Committee on Cataloguing which was appointed some years ago by the Publishing Board of the American Library Association, and will necessitate a careful reconsideration of the advance edition of the new "A. L. A. Rules" which that committee issued two years ago. This has caused the chairman of that committee, Mr. J. C. M. Hanson, chief of the Catalogue Division of the Library of Congress, to contribute to the February *Library Journal* a careful and scholarly article on "Rules for Corporate Entry." Previous discussions on this particular topic have been concerned with the question of right of existence of the corporate entry. The problem before Mr. Hanson's committee is whether corporate bodies should be entered under their names or under the place where they have their headquarters. Mr. Hanson's article ends with a plea for exceptions. "The real test," he says, "is not the ability to follow a given set of rules, but to know when and how to make exceptions to them"—which is true enough, though something should be said in favor of the ability to know when *not* to make exceptions.

—In 'Les Grands Écrivains Scientifiques' of Gaston Laurent (Armand Colin & Cie.), along with much that is familiar to all, everybody will find something new to him with which he will be glad to become acquainted, while some extracts there are which will be known to nobody, unless by accident. Notes accompanying the text, along with judicious geographical notices, go to compose a decidedly entertaining volume. We cannot make out exactly why these particular passages from these particular writers should have been selected, but it is easy to see that the reasons have been of the kind that usually prevail in France, where it never would do to allow the youth to suspect that any German could combine the characters of a man of science and a writer of distinction. So that accounts for the omission of Goethe. Nor will a strictly defined patriotism accord any hearing to Belgians, Swiss, Lombards, or Catalans. After appropriating a portion of the volume to foreigners—the English Harvey, Newton, and Darwin, the Italian Galileo, the Dutch Huygens, the German Kepler, and Leibniz (Copernicus being treated as a Pole, and Leibniz being chiefly a writer of French)—the rest is given over to eighteen authors pretty fairly distributed among the different provinces of France; but a volume at least as good as this might have been made up of extracts from strictly French scientific wits not here represented. We note an anecdote or two of Sainte-Beuve. The mathematician Bertrand reports that he always used to insist that the expression "Il est de nos amis" was bad grammar. Again: "Sainte-Beuve repoussait avec indignation cette maxime cynique que beaucoup d'honnêtes gens, comme s'ils se vantaient d'un devoir accompli, se disent fiers de pratiquer: 'Il faut toujours défendre ses amis.' Aimons nos amis, partageons leurs chagrins, réjouissons-nous de leurs succès, mais ne les défendons que quand ils ont raison, ne leur accordons, même en public, que les louanges qu'ils ont méritées. La vérité est, comme la justice, le droit et le profit de tous: à qui, dans certains cas, se vante de l'oublier, il serait bien sévère de ne pas pardonner, il n'est pas tolérable qu'on en fasse un mérite." That is a morality which needs to be combined with delicate judgment.

—History repeats itself. In volume xix. of the series 'The Philippine Islands—1493-1898' (Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co.) there is reproduced in translation a "Memorial and Relation" about the Philippines, prepared for Philip III. by Hernando de los Rios Coronel, long procurator-general of the Philippine Islands, and published at Madrid in 1621. The second part of the memorial "treats of the importance of the Philippines and of the means for preserving them." The summary by the author of his various theses is worth quoting, both because it gives a fair idea of Spain's various aims in conquest, and because it has been parodied—quite unconsciously—many times since 1898. The reasons assigned for "the preservation and increase" of the islands in 1621 were:

"The first is the increase and extension of the holy gospel and the glory and honor of God, which is so incumbent upon your Majesty in the first place, because your Majesty has inherited from your blessed father and glorious ancestors this pious and holy seal for spreading and extending the holy Catholic faith, by reason of which your Majesty enjoys the wealth of the Indies; in the second place, because it is so suitable to the greatness of your Majesty's sovereignty and your reputation. For to leave this work when begun would be a great scandal before the world, and the occasion of much comment to all its nations—and especially to the heretics, who would say that your Majesty was influenced not by the glory of God, nor the preservation of the Indies, but by private interest, since where you had not that you allowed Christianity to perish.

"The second concerns the peace of your royal conscience, if you should not preserve those islands while possible.

"The third is for causes of state; for it would amount to giving your enemies arms and forces against your Majesty, and would encourage to the same enmity others who are envious of your Majesty's greatness. . . . [They] clearly recognize that, if they could possess that archipelago without opposition, it would be worth more to them than eight millions clear (as I will demonstrate to whosoever may be curious or may desire to know it), through the profit which they can make on spices, drugs, and the trade with Great China, Japan, and the neighboring countries.

"The fourth is, because straightway the whole of Portuguese India would be lost. . . .

"The fifth is the knowledge (which is evident) of the immense wealth which lies in the Philippines, as I shall explain further in this treatise, and which hitherto has been unrecognized.

"The sixth would be the loss of the most convenient and important post which your Majesty holds in all his kingdoms, not only for the extension of the holy gospel in so many kingdoms of idol-worshippers who are capable of receiving it, but, as these are in the neighborhood of the Philippines, the hope, consequently, of enjoying the immense wealth which they possess through their trade and commerce."

HORACE WALPOLE'S LETTERS.

The Letters of Horace Walpole, Fourth Earl of Oxford. Chronologically arranged, and edited with notes and indices by Mrs. Paget Toynbee. Vols. IX.-XII. 1774-1783. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

There is an historical, almost a dramatic, unity in volumes IX.-XII. of Mrs. Paget Toynbee's edition of Walpole's letters, which, extending from May, 1774, to May, 1783, just overlap at the beginning and end what every contemporary must have considered one of the most calamitous, as it certainly was one of the most inglorious, periods of English history. Though too fond of his ease to be an active patriot, Walpole was not indifferent to the misfortunes of his country, and the depression occasioned by the national reverses conspires with kindred motives to tinge this section of the correspondence with a melancholy not altogether unwelcome, as it reveals the heart within the apparently frivolous man of fashion and connoisseur in elegant trifles. Among contributory private circumstances may be enumerated advancing years, declining health, deaths of friends, constant worry from the affairs of his lunatic nephew, and criticism and self-criticism for having allowed Chatterton to perish. He admits no fault on this score, yet evidently wishes that it had been otherwise. In fact, he had no reason for serious self-reproach—he had acted according to the best light he had; but if the light within a man be darkness, how great is that darkness! The fault, however, was Chatterton's, whose deception recoiled upon himself. Had he presented himself as the author of the Rowley poems, he would have had a strong case against his age if it had refused him recognition, but

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as their mere discoverer he had *prima facie* no more claim than any other lucky young man.

Walpole's perspicacity showed him that the Rowley poems could not be genuine; and this was the real head and front of his offending with the numerous party who, extraordinary as this now appears, believed in their authenticity. He was one of those interesting persons who move in the van of one epoch while they bring up the rear of another. It is remarkable that the strongest epistolary indication Walpole ever gave of his part as a harbinger of modern criticism has never appeared in his letters until the publication of this edition, having hitherto been printed only in *Notes and Queries* for August 6, 1870. It is in a letter, dated November 8, 1777, to Robert Jephson, a witty satirist and now forgotten dramatist, who had consulted Walpole upon one of his plays, and to whom Walpole addressed his "Three Letters on Tragedy." He here says of Shakspere:

"Dr. Johnson goes much farther, far beyond truth, and says that that most sublime genius never attempted to be sublime without being bombast,—but indubitably Shakespeare is never so superior to all mankind as when he is most simple and natural. Recollect Constance, Arthur, Juliet, Desdemona, or Hotspur's mockeries of Glendower. . . . Henry IV.'s image of the cabin-boy *in a night so rude*, and Richard II.'s sensibility to his favourite horse being pleased with the load of Bolingbroke—are texts out of the book of nature, in comparison of which the works of all other writers in every language that I understand are to me apocryphal."

After this, he may be forgiven for thinking that "there are parts of 'Oroonoko' and 'The Fatal Marriage' worthy a disciple of Shakespeare," and for questioning whether Drayton produced five guineas' worth of poetry in the whole of his life. Perhaps his appreciation of Shakspere may have been stimulated by his dislike of Johnson, who appears in the correspondence as "Demogorgon" and "Caliban," and is declared to possess neither taste nor ear, nor any criterion of judgment but his old woman's prejudices, and is most unjustly accused of "crying up" Blackmore, which he never did, and Thomson, which he did to his honor. Boswell attributes this enmity to Johnson's having, by his own acknowledgment, deliberately misreported Sir Robert Walpole's speeches; but no two men could have had less in common. It is interesting to find him a better judge than Johnson, not only of Shakspere, but of a great author infinitely removed from Shakspere:

"Lo!" he writes on February 18, 1776, immediately after the publication of the first volumes of 'The Decline and Fall,' "There is just appeared a truly classic work: a history, not majestic like Livy, nor compressed like Tacitus; not stamped with character like Clarendon; perhaps not so deep as Robertson's *Scotland*, but a thousand degrees above his *Charles;* not pointed like Voltaire, but as accurate as he is inexact; modest as he is *tranchant*, and sly as Montesquieu without being so *recherché*."

The other great publication of 1776, 'The Wealth of Nations,' is not mentioned, but the author is disrespectfully termed "a wight." He was probably obnoxious as the friend of Hume, antipathy to whom was perhaps the only feeling that Walpole shared with Johnson. Walpole's preference of Robertson's 'Scotland' to his 'Charles V.' will not command general assent. He seems, indeed, to have underrated Robertson, and to have discouraged the latter's design of writing the history of William III. and Anne, which he thought a subject for Watson, the now forgotten historian of Philip the Second.

Admiration for William the Third is an excellent token of a good English patriot, and should have appeased Macaulay, who has painted Walpole, as was his wont with striking characters, as a painter paints a dragon, with more regard for effect than for veracity. Walpole's observations on the ambiguous conduct of Marlborough and Godolphin display much good sense, but he seems to be under the impression that James the Second lived till after the accession of Anne. His enthusiasm for William, whose history even so eminent an historian as Robertson was not, in his view, eminent enough to write, reveals the apparent fop and curiosity hunter in the else unsuspected character of a hero-worshipper; and prominent amid the incessant complaints of his own country is one of her inability to produce a hero, which, indeed, she shares with the rest of the civilized world.

"Though we have parts, we have no wisdom. Orators we have, I believe, superior to the most boasted of antiquity, but we have no politician. Can either the Government or the Opposition boast of a single man who is fit to govern a whole country, much less to restore one? It is my opinion that Europe itself is worn out. Has one great general or admiral risen out of this extensive war?"

Rodney, it must be remembered, had not then (1780) been revealed as the conqueror of De Grasse, nor had Heathfield defended Gibraltar. The attitude of England on the latter occasion extorts a burst of admiration from the veteran *frondeur:* "There is something sublime in this little island, beset with foes, calmly dispatching its own safeguard to maintain such a distant possession." Nothing is more remarkable throughout the whole current of Walpole's criticism than its restriction to a purely aristocratic circle, whether as regards its objects or its audience. King and Commons are equally out of it. Though it must have been well known that George the Third's obstinacy was at the bottom of the whole calamity, he is seldom mentioned and never attacked; nor is there any hint of an appeal from the representatives of the pocket boroughs to the general sense of the people. There can be no doubt that if there had been a fair representation of public feeling in Parliament, the war would have been stopped upon the first appearance of a hostile foreign coalition.

Twenty-three of the letters now published are entirely new, including five in French to Madame du Deffand—poor salvage from a much more extensive collection. The others were recovered and destroyed by Walpole himself, whose conscience probably smote him for his bad French. We hear from himself of an equally regrettable loss: "On Mr. Chute's death his executor sent me a bundle of letters he had kept of mine for above thirty years. I took the trouble to read them over, and I bless my stars that they were as silly insipid things as ever I don't desire to see again." He must have destroyed them, for the two or three letters to Chute that exist in his correspondence belong to a much later period. The loss of both the Du Deffand and the Chute letters is deplorable for his own sake, since his sincere affection for both correspondents would have aided to redeem him from the imputation of heartlessness. His letter to Mann of May 27, 1776, on the death of Chute, is a model of expression of manly sorrow, and one sentence perhaps suggests why we have no more like it: "Don't wonder I pour out my heart to you; you knew him, and know how faithfully true all I say of him."

It is superfluous to repeat how eminently Mrs. Toynbee's edition of Walpole overtops all others. To render it supremely enduring it needs but one addition, which we trust may be supplied—a companion volume of annotations, not bulky, but sufficiently copious to preclude the necessity for exploring recondite regions of literature in quest of information which ought to be at hand, and to entitle the possessor to proclaim *Omnia mea mecum porto*. We should gladly learn, for instance, without a hunt in the biographical dictionary, what caused serious and, as it would appear, groundless charges of embezzlement against Sir William Chambers, the architect of Somerset House; and what Governor of Barbados got into what scrape, and whether he got out of it. Much piquancy would be added to the mention of "the Archbishopen of Canterbury" playing whist with Walpole and Gibbon, were we reminded of the disgrace into which this lady's Sunday card parties brought her amiable husband with George the Third. In a postscript to the letter of April 8, 1776, Walpole confesses an error which, so far as can be judged from the letter itself, he does not seem to have committed. The error, nevertheless, is there, conveyed in the words "as if to avenge his namesake," for the interpretation of which the modern reader must resort to Gray's correspondence, if only he knows the way. One assertion of Walpole's invites inquiry, his claim to be able to fix the date of the first cultivation of the pineapple in England by his possession of a picture representing the royal gardener, Rose, presenting one to Charles the Second. This is particularly interesting, for Beckmann, in his 'History of Inventions,' produces no authentic instance till near the end of the century. But is the precise date of the picture known? And how is the priority of this pineapple above all other pineapples established? There is a curious testimony that the pineapple, if not grown, was known in England as early as 1663 in an epitaph of that date upon a young lady in the parish church of Fowey, Cornwall, where the perfume of her virtues is alleged to have fully rivalled the fragrance of a pineapple.

Mrs. Toynbee's too chary annotation is always pertinent. We have noticed but one apparent, and, perhaps, only apparent, error, the seeming implication (on p. 344 of Vol. IX.) that John Townley translated but one canto of Hudibras into French, whereas, in fact, he translated the entire poem.

These volumes are as interesting as their predecessors in point of illustration. Wide, indeed, is the interval between Angelica Kauffmann's propriety and Dance's eccentricity in their representations of Walpole, though evidently depicting the same person. Lawrence's sketch is interesting as an early example of his manner, but shows, we fear, that flattery was innate in him. Of the other portraits the most striking are the resolute though not highly intellectual coun-

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tenance of Clive, and the uncomplimentary delineation of Lord North, which illustrates the truth and fallacy of painting, allowing him no vestige of the statesman, which he was not, but not any, either, of the man of wit and sense, which he was.

HARVARD LECTURES ON GREEK SUBJECTS.

Harvard Lectures on Greek Subjects. By S. H. Butcher. The Macmillan Co.

The late Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh has published little. He is known to every schoolboy as the collaborator of Mr. Lang in the best English prose translation of the 'Odyssey,' and no student of the 'Poetics' is unfamiliar with his translation and interpretation of Aristotle's critical principles. But his best-known work is probably a volume of essays on 'Some Aspects of the Greek Genius.' The six lectures before us, delivered at Harvard last April as the Lane Lectures, are very similar in their tone and general tendency to those earlier essays.

The first is devoted to a comparison of the political and religious ideals of Greece and Israel, a study of the profoundly different temperaments and points of view of the Hellene and the Hebrew, about which there is always something more to be said.

"'He hath set Eternity in their hearts: so we might sum up the spirit of Israel. But the Jewish ideal simplified life by leaving half of it untouched. It remained for Greece to make the earth a home, ordered and well equipped for the race, if not indeed for the individual. . . . Hebraism and Hellenism stand out distinct, the one in all the intensity of its religious life, the other in the wealth and diversity of its secular gifts and graces.

> Thus the sharp contrasts of the sculptor's plan
> Showed the two primal paths our race has trod;
> Hellas the nurse of man complete as man,
> Judæa pregnant with the living God."

Professor Butcher makes a detailed comparison of Prometheus and Job, not so much in the spirit of the literary critic as with the aim of setting forth clearly the problems that confronted these two revolted beings. The essential difference lay, of course, in the Greek and Hebrew conception of the two deities whom their subjects had defied. The Hebrew God is both strong and good. Zeus is only strong. One could wish that the purely literary parallels of Greek and Hebrew literature had been more interesting to Mr. Butcher. We have often wondered why some classical scholar has not taken up the challenge that was offered by Chateaubriand in 'Le Génie du Christianisme.' He devoted some pages of this work to a comparison of Homer and the Bible, which he regarded as typifying the opposed endowments of the two races. The parallel was by no means to the advantage of Homer, as was, of course, to be expected from one who wrote with the definite aim of proving the inferiority of all things pagan. Chateaubriand compares the sinister omens seen by the second sight of Theoclymenus among the suitors of Penelope—the shroud of mist that rose about them and the walls that dripped with blood—with the vision of Eliphaz in Job, "when deep sleep falleth on men. . . . Then a spirit passed before my face; the hair of my flesh stood up. It stood still, but I could not discern the form thereof, . . . and I heard a still voice." He thinks this unknown face, this whisper, far more terrible than the blood and darkness and hurrying ghosts of the 'Odyssey.' Nothing in Homer can match the terror of the prophecy of Ezekiel: "Now shall the isles tremble in the day of thy fall . . . when I shall make thee a desolate city"—Tyre, that busy city of traders, with her streets made empty and no figure of man passing through her gates. One may not always agree with Chateaubriand, and these are in the end matters of individual taste, like all questions of literary æsthetics; but few will disagree with his judgment that Homer must yield to the Bible in certain parallel passages. For instance, who can deny that the tears of Joseph at the sight of Benjamin, and his words, "I am Joseph; doth my father yet live?" are more effective than the tears of Odysseus when he hears the minstrel sing of Troy, or his recognition by Telemachus, whom he first dazzles with the help of a goddess?

The second lecture, on "Greece and Phœnicia," contrasts the "inhuman and unlovable race" of the Phœnicians, who have been called by a French writer "those English of antiquity," with the wider and nobler aims of Greek civilization. They lived to satisfy a single passion, the greed of gain. "Theirs was, in Bacon's phrase, 'the sabbathless pursuit of fortune.' . . . To the past and the future they were alike indifferent." They had no literature, their art was mere imitation; and though they supplied Greece with an alphabet, they used writing merely for keeping their accounts. Never was such a nation of shopkeepers. And so they passed away, and, as Ezekiel foretold, their cities were made desolate, "like the top of a rock, . . . a place to spread nets upon." In the third lecture, on "The Greek Love of Knowledge," Mr. Butcher hints at the power of a Greek poet to transform into a masterpiece of literature what to the Phœnician had served a wholly utilitarian purpose. He accepts with some reserve the theory of M. Bérard, reviewed in our columns two years ago, that the poet of the 'Odyssey' shows a remarkably close acquaintance with the navigation of the Mediterranean, that his storms are not the storms of literature, but can be paralleled in the modern French "Instructions Nautiques," and that the poem is really a sort of mirror of the sea, as the mariner knows it on those coasts to-day. But he is careful not to touch on the theory which was the basis of M. Bérard's book, that this expert knowledge was derived from a Phœnician "periplus," or chart of the Mediterranean, which must have been in the poet's hands. Perhaps M. Bérard would think that it was not necessary to quote him or the French Admiralty instructions to prove that a careful observer such as the poet of the 'Odyssey' knew the best hour for setting sail from a neighboring island, and had even had some experience of rough weather at sea. Such expert knowledge really demands no more intelligence than has been displayed by a Henty or a Conrad; and if that were all, we certainly do not need M. Bérard's two elaborate volumes to convince us. The whole question is whether we can trace a Phœnician canvas behind the embroidery of Homer; if we accept less than that, why drag in M. Bérard?

The last two lectures are on "Greek Literary Criticism." To begin with, we reject Mr. Butcher's footnote (p. 169), in which he seems to think that Mr. Saintsbury's 'History of Criticism,' volume i., has made it superfluous for English scholars to sketch the development of Greek literary criticism. English readers on such a subject will probably have a reading knowledge of French, and Mr. Saintsbury has not by any means superseded Egger's 'Histoire de la Critique chez les Grecques.' He has merely compiled a very creditable handbook, which can be used as a book of reference as one uses an encyclopædia, and the literary treatment of Greek criticism is still a comparatively untrodden field for the feet of such genuine scholars and humanists as Mr. Butcher. There will indeed be nothing new to Greek scholars in his pages on some absurdities of Greek criticism of Homer—for instance, the efforts of some of Homer's interpreters to explain away his outworn theology by taking his stories as symbolical of moral truths. "Homer," said a Stoic philosopher, "would certainly be impious if he were not allegorical." Then there were certain Alexandrian grammarians who tested Homer by the rules of Alexandrian etiquette, and expelled those lines in the 'Odyssey' in which Odysseus seemed to them to do the work of a hall-porter (which was "unseemly") when he took charge of the opening and shutting of the door of the Wooden Horse. Fortunately these comments are not really typical of Greek criticism. They may be paralleled, however, by the judgments of certain distinguished German critics of our day, who tell us solemnly that at this point we must reflect that our Homeric hero receives a Mycenæan wound though he is wearing Ionian armor of a later period, and that at that point only an inferior and therefore later poet would have shown such "lack of proper feeling" as to make Penelope sit waiting for Odysseus while he took a bath.

On page 229 Mr. Butcher seems to accept the theory of Norden, though he does not mention him, that it was not till late in the Græco-Roman period that men fell into the habit of reading to themselves and not aloud, and quotes the *locus classicus* on this—a passage on which too much stress has probably been placed. It is from the 'Confessions' of Augustine, who tells us how his master Ambrose used to read and understand as he read, though he uttered no word aloud. On page 236 he amazes us by saying that a certain essay of Dionysius of Halicarnassus is "little read even by scholars." Can this be true in England? Many students of Greek literature must have noticed how persistent has been the quotation by English-speaking scholars of the tract 'On the Sublime' since the appearance of the very handy edition of Professor Rhys Roberts; Demetrius 'On Style' has lately secured a vogue for the same reason. If only some scholar high up in one of the English universities would bring out just such an edition of Dionysius 'On the Arrangements of Words,' we should shortly find a marked familiarity among English-speaking scholars with this essay by a most intelligent Greek on his own language, with its careful analyses showing how the finest effects in Greek prose and verse have been secured.

Mr. Butcher's own style is admirably suited to such essays as these. No one can read them without recognizing how desirable it

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is that a synthetic mind like his should handle these larger questions of classical scholarship. He proves not only that one can be extremely accurate and scholarly without being minute, but also that the minute scholars whom only specialists read are justified of their existence, and brought into touch with a larger world of readers, when a humanist gathers up the finespun disconnected threads of their theories and weaves them into a texture that will wash and wear, and is yet decorative enough.

TWO NOVELS.

Dear Fatherland. By Ex-Lieut. Bilse. John Lane.

Walter Pieterse: A Story of Holland. By Multatuli (Edward Douwes Dekker); Translated by Hubert Evans, Ph.D. Friderici & Gareis.

'Dear Fatherland' attracts attention first of all because the author was court-martialled and imprisoned for his former novel, 'Life in a Garrison Town.' Its revelations of army matters were too much for the German authorities. The present book is also a story of the army, and we should suppose might have secured for its author a court-martial, had the earlier one failed to do so. It pictures unmercifully a world of iniquity. Cruelty, dissipation, immorality, and flagrant injustice are the rule of German military life, as the author shows it. The difficulty of living within his means is the beginning of Benno Koehler's troubles, and his way descends through darkness and degradation to a bitter end. The only officers who are actuated by either reason or principle are Preusse, who falls a victim to the anger of a drunken dragoon, and Schill, who, although he is on the eve of promotion, sends in his papers, and retires in deep disgust to a civilian career. The conversations of these men, their views on military matters, and their real love of the Fatherland supply the meat of the matter—the actual argument, which is perhaps made more effective by putting it into an utterly depressing story. But it is a hideous picture, and it must be admitted, even by the author, that many of the predicaments of his characters are such as befall all who are weak or worse, and that they need not be foisted upon their profession, be that what it may. Patriotism, from a point of wide vision, has no doubt inspired the book. Room has been found in it for all opinions, from bitter and justified hate to a shadowy hopefulness. In fact, this is a novel in which the chief interest and the strongest conviction are found less in the story than in the talk. From Schill and Preusse one may learn. From others we hear this: Grube, about to destroy in his wrath the portrait of the Emperor, says gloomily: "I wrote to him just what had happened to us from prison, and also begged for a reduction of the sentence, and do you know what they answered me? That he would not." To him in reply says his comrade Weidner: "Don't believe it, Ernst. I tell you again he knows nothing about it—they tell him nothing; they tell him what is nice and pretty, but what is bad they keep to themselves, because it is their own fault that it is so. . . . He means to be good to all of us, and therefore I hold him dear—Hang up the picture!"

'Walter Pieterse,' according to its author, is "the story of one who in his youth was in love with a sawmill, and had to endure this torture for a long time." Mr. Chesterton has observed that if a poet "suddenly fell in love with the buffers of a railway train, it would take him considerably more time than his allotted threescore years and ten to communicate his feelings." No one need be surprised, then, to find that this Dutch story was originally published in a seven-volume work, "sandwiched in between miscellaneous sketches, essays, and treatises." It has been sifted out from its surroundings, and its first part is given in the present volume, bringing the young hero up into his teens. Dekker, the author, was born in 1820, and died in 1887. His first work, written under the signature of "Multatuli" (in reference to his Government's ill-treatment of him), brought him instant fame. It was an appeal to the people from the Government which flouted him and thwarted his plans for improving the condition of the Javanese, made familiar to him by his position in the colonial service. By an English critic Dekker has been called the Heine of Holland, and by Anatole France the Voltaire of the Netherlands.

Walter Pieterse is a little boy of a poetic temperament, born into a family unspeakably dense and vulgar—into a community hardly less so. His story is immensely detailed and told in a bygone style of confidentialness, but a style highly animated and frequently witty. It is easy to see how the book might have appealed to Dutch contemporary readers as a protest against Philistinism and stupidity of all sorts in matters social, educational, and religious. It is a lively satire on a very dull state of things, and must have been as sensational to the society it caricatured as 'Nicholas Nickleby' was to the English schoolmaster. The public has become so accustomed to diatribes on the narrowness of the social system as seen through childish eyes that there is little now to impress one as original in the scheme. A raw, coarse world, made up of the middle and lower classes in Amsterdam a few generations ago, supplies a strong color for background to the small boy's romance reading and domestic knight-errantry. But Dekker's medium, for all its brilliancy, is farce, and farces are poor travellers. If the story possesses a profound interest to-day it must be for Holland, hardly for a public which requires a translator. Its visible contortions over conditions either bygone or incredibly crude we should expect to have slender hold on English readers, as slender as have at present the Charlotte and Werther style of love story or the Byronic hero. The translator, though a Ph.D., affronts style and even grammar at moments. Dekker's own manner is colloquial and keen, the Heine quality coming out in sentences like this: "After the houses had been covered with slate, it was thought that there was too much danger of fire in firecrackers, but on that evening, when the houses still had thatch roofs, the dangerous pleasure of Amsterdam youth was unrestrained."

The Holy Roman Empire. By James Bryce. New edition. Macmillan. 1904.

It is doubtless true, as the late Professor Freeman remarked, that "the greatest of all witnesses to the unity of history is the long-abiding drama of the Eastern power of Rome." The history of that Eastern empire is, indeed, a drama, and a prodigiously effective one—a drama which goes far toward helping the student to realize that essential kinship between history and poetry which the ancients were fond of pointing out. Above all things, it is a drama of vital existence. The Holy Roman Empire of the West is, on the other hand, no really tragic figure, but rather an elusive wraith that seems to belong in a world of romance, far distant from the actual abodes of men; and yet she drifts alluringly through the complex of hard knocks and soiled politics, tangling the threads of diplomacy, casting a glamour over the rude and solid outlines of national movements, and helping to make poetry (though it be not tragic) also out of this history of the growth of the Germanic power in Europe. How could she be anything but a ghost? What possible reality of imperial existence was left in the ancient city when a King of the Franks assumed the Roman diadem, and Italy, so far as it was imperial, became a mere appendix to a German realm? So the shade plays Una; and Charlemagne—that other creature of romance who supplants in our imagination the plain Charles of the historian—takes the part of Tristram. And for centuries after Charlemagne fell into dust, sitting there in his chair of empire in the deep vault of Aachen, the wan Una, ever frailer and more ethereal as time grew old, played her elfin part in the life of growing and decaying nations, till, almost a full century ago, the sceptre-wand of another would-be Charlemagne contemptuously dissolved the spell, and the feeble ghost paled away into nothingness.

The Holy Roman Empire, said Voltaire, is neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. But ghosts walk, for all Voltaire's skepticism; and to some people it is given to see them, even in the full daylight of Mr. Bryce's famous and brilliant sketch. His story of that shadowy power was first published forty years ago *(eheu fugaces!)*, and now appears, after various intermediate editions, in a revised form that scorns numerical sequence. The identity of the book is by no means lost in the revision, for the changes have not been such as to alter the general mode of treatment, nor to increase the size of the work beyond the limits of a single volume. A full and very useful chronological table of important events, together with three maps, makes the tale easier to follow. Two new chapters have been added, one on the Eastern Empire, and another on "the constitution of the new German Empire, and the forces which have given it strength and cohesion." Certain other important events have been more fully or precisely described, and a comparison of several chapters in their revised form with the same passages in the latest edition other than this which we have at hand (the eighth), shows a very considerable number of small but significant changes in phraseology, mainly in the interests of accuracy and of accord with the recent progress of the study of the Middle Ages.

Mr. Bryce's history has now lived long enough to delight and instruct three generations of speaking men, and there seems to be no reason for supposing that that number may not be many times multiplied.

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Introductory History of England. By C. R. L. Fletcher. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904.

Mr. Fletcher's point of departure is the complaint made by "certain uncomplimentary young gentlemen" that history is intolerably dull. This view recalls, of course, the saying of the mouse who, during the adventures of Alice in Wonderland, alludes to the history of the Norman Conquest as the driest thing *he* knows. Mr. Fletcher's opinion is "that English History should be an inheritance of childhood; that its legends and its romance should grow into our thoughts from very early years, and should expand themselves with the expansion of our minds; that we should feel History and dream of it rather than learn it as a lesson." Following this profession of faith, there is a bit of pedagogical theory regarding the place of history in the school curriculum which we shall not stop to discuss. Mr. Fletcher's avowed object is to avoid intolerable dulness, even when discoursing of the Norman Conquest; and without further delay we may as well state that he has succeeded. "The Celt seems always quite ready to mingle with inferior races; it is only with superior races that he entertains even occasionally at the present day an objection to amalgamate; and yet this cannot be attributed to his humility, which is by no means his strong point." A writer who is willing to adopt this strain cannot fail to catch the attention of his readers. Whether he always gives them sound doctrine is another question.

Mr. Fletcher's book is "introductory" in a double sense. Besides being intended for boys, it stops at the beginning of the Tudor period. In style, it is explanatory, and the author is enabled, by excising a large number of subjects, to treat those that remain with tolerable fulness of detail. The nature of the protest here made against dulness can be appreciated only by those who have examined with some care the text-books used in English schools. Mr. Fletcher is a fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and most of his readers will have been nurtured on the works of Ransome, Oman, and Airy. These books are all written by scholars, and have merits of a certain kind; but how the fourth, fifth, or sixth-form boy can wade through such a mass of facts as is presented in them, we have long been at a loss to understand. Mr. Fletcher has a facile pen, and infuses much ozone into his pages. Without professing to be a deep student of records, he has been a pupil of Bishop Stubbs, and learned from Professor Maitland the superior claims of the large-hide theory. The dry-as-dust critic might pick holes in some of his statements, but, where the aim is more to enliven than to record, one must not be too exacting. "Westward the course of empire takes its way" could hardly have been written by a poet "who wished to pay a compliment to the United States of America," since Berkeley died in 1753. Constantine was not born at York, as is stated on page 22 and reiterated on page 24. Theodore of Tarsus was not Archbishop of Canterbury from 669 to 700. Philip the Fair did not "terrify the cardinals into electing one of his own creatures as Pope." These will serve as typical slips, though a good many might be cited. But Mr. Fletcher has a grasp of essentials, and some lapses may well be condoned in the case of one whose light touch really does lend interest to the mediæval history of England.

The Principles of Relief. By Edward T. Devine. Macmillan. 1904.

The title of this book is ambiguous. Relief is a word of many meanings. It perhaps includes the idea of humanity in its connotation; but until we know what men are to be relieved, and who are to receive relief, we cannot formulate its principles. The author occasionally uses the term "charitable relief," but it is with reluctance. Charity is obsolete. "The idea of charity, attractive and inspiring at one stage of social development, becomes in time obnoxious, and, as a permanent element in the relation between classes, it becomes an anomaly." Apparently Mr. Devine has chiefly in mind relief by the community, or society; which implies governmental agency. Yet he has little to say of this method of relief, and his maxims usually imply that aid is to be given systematically to the needy through organized charity. From this it would seem that charity is, after all, not superseded, and that it is the poor who are to be relieved, although paupers are not reckoned among the poor, nor is alms-giving considered as relief. On the whole, it seems correct to say that only those temporarily and not chronically unable to support themselves come within the purview of this treatise.

To discover the principles of relief in this sense, we must assume a "standard of living." In the city of New York this standard corresponds roughly with an income of $600 a year for a family of five persons. Under normal conditions, this income may be regarded as steady; but when men are thrown out of work, or lose their health, or die, the family may find itself unable to maintain the standard. In many cases there are savings or insurance funds to fall back on; but when these are exhausted, relief from some quarter must come. Neighbors, friends, relatives, and employers do much, and often all that is required. There is a remnant, however, consisting of really deserving people, widows and orphans largely, who can often be brought to a self-supporting condition by a little judicious aid. Unfortunately, the fact that the aid must be judicious in order not to be mischievous, renders it almost hopeless to try to formulate principles of relief. Every case must be carefully studied, and dealt with according to its own circumstances. The quantity of relief to be given, its quality, and its duration, can be determined only by experts. The amateur philanthropist may be as destructive of character as the amateur physician is of health. Yet many persons who would not venture to dose the rich with drugs of the effect of which they are ignorant, will give money to the poor without regard to consequences.

The difficulty of establishing principles of action when action must be largely discretionary, is illustrated by Mr. Devine's attempts to show that charitable relief does not affect the rate of wages. We must not, he tells us, adopt the practice of the old English poor law and allow employers to get the benefit of underpaid labor. "We are not to encourage, directly or indirectly, the payment of wages below the normal or self-supporting standard." This is well-meant advice, but it does not enlarge our wisdom. Assuming, as we must, that there will always be many persons whose income is not equal to the standard, we wish to know how we can increase this income by donations without drawing on the fund from which any increase in wages must be provided. In other words, if the vast sums now expended in relief of many kinds were paid out as increased wages, would there be fewer poor and less suffering, or more?

This book does not throw much light on these fundamental problems, but it contains many practical maxims. Disease should be prevented by the coöperation of the medical profession with social workers, and tenement houses should be improved. Four of the most important causes of need are family desertion, intemperance, industrial displacement, and immigration; and the most approved methods of action in these cases are described. The examples of the treatment of specific instances are very interesting, showing what long and complicated problems are implied in the short and simple annals of the poor. Under the title "Relief in Disasters," we have brief accounts of what was done at the time of the Chicago fire, the Johnstown flood, the Baltimore fire, the *Slocum* disaster, etc. While Mr. Devine's statement of principles is not very lucid, his practical suggestions are instructive, and his book will interest every one who is concerned to lessen that great mass of suffering which exists only because the wisdom of men is not equal to their benevolence.

The True Henry Clay. By Joseph M. Rogers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1904. Pp. 388.

Mr. Rogers gives us a very lifelike picture of Henry Clay the man. Here is properly neither history nor biography, but a series of essays; sketches for the most part, in which snapshots are taken of Clay from different points of view. In separate chapters we are invited to look at Clay the speaker, Clay the duellist, Clay the compromiser. Again, it is as a member of the "triumvirate," or as engaged in Senatorial colloquies, that he is held up for our inspection. Back and forth from youth to old age, from old age to youth, we are taken repeatedly, until all sense of chronology, of history, of growth and development is utterly lost. Nevertheless, out of this confusion—seemingly worse confounded by irrelevant anecdote, questionable jest, unprofitable analogy—there does somehow emerge a live man. Mr. Rogers is fair-minded in that he does not scruple to lay bare the weaknesses as well as the strength of his hero. Nor has he any race or sectional prejudices to air. But excessive preoccupation with the one figure makes the author unheedful of the importance of others. Lack of a sense of proportion, a feeble grasp of the subject as a whole, constitute, indeed, his chief faults. The man Clay he sees and comprehends.

Of positive errors there are, so far as we have noticed, comparatively few. Clay's influence at Ghent is clearly overestimated. Mr. Rogers maintains that Clay was not a "trimmer," but has considerable difficulty in explaining the Texas letters

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and some other things; and we may readily surmise what the "Puritan Adams" would have thought of the statement that, after the compensation bill, Clay was "obliged to make personal appeals for votes in a manner that he would *at all other times* have considered undignified" (p. 96).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Altsheler, Joseph A. The Candidate. Harpers. $1.50.
Anecdota Oxoniensia: Cáin Adámnáin. Henry Frowde.
Archives and History of Mississippi, Third Annual Report. Nashville, Tenn.
Baldwin, Charles Sears. How to Write. Macmillan Co.
Berton, Guy. Art Thou the Man? Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Brunot, Ferdinand. Histoire de la Langue Française. Vol. I. Paris: Armand Colin.
Burden of Armaments. London: The Cobden Club. 3s. 6d.
Call, Annie Payson. The Freedom of Life. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25 net.
Capen, Edward Warren. The Historical Development of the Poor Law of Connecticut. Macmillan Co.
Cheney, Warren. The Way of the North. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Chesnut, Mary Boykin. A Diary from Dixie. Appleton. $2.50 net.
Fischer, George Alexander. Beethoven. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.40 net.
Gautier, Théophile. Voyage en Espagne. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Ghosh, Sarath Kumar. The Verdict of the Gods. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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